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THE PROFESSIONAL MOVEMENT
OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS
IN PENNSYLVANIA

A THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of
The Graduate School of Cornell University

In Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

WILLIAM FRANKLIN HALL

1957

The Author

William Franklin Hall, member of the faculty of The Pennsylvania State College, Department of Rural Education, was born at Blain, Pennsylvania, January 19, 1892. Entering Millersville State Normal School from the one-room school, he was granted the normal school diploma in 1913. In 1920 he was graduated from The Pennsylvania State College, curriculum in agronomy; in 1924, was awarded the master of science degree, agricultural education, by the same institution. Further graduate study was pursued in Cornell University.

The author has taught successively the one-room school, one term; high schools, three terms - two, as principal; in The Pennsylvania State College, thirteen years. He has participated in educational surveys in Pennsylvania and in New York.

Service for fifteen months in the United States Army, from which he was discharged a lieutenant in the infantry, interrupted an otherwise unbroken educational experience, either as learner or as teacher.

Acknowledgment

This study was conducted under the direction of a committee of which Professor J. E. Butterworth, Department of Rural Education, was Chairman. Other members of the committee were Professors R. M. Stewart and E. N. Ferriss, Department of Rural Education, and Professor Dwight Sanderson, Department of Rural Social Organization.

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THE PROFESSIONAL MOVEMENT OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS IN PENNSYLVANIA

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

The General Problem

Its importance - That aged adage, "A rolling stone gathers no moss," applies to no element of the social order more appropriately than to the teaching profession. Among the laity its application is recognized by but few; in the profession it has long been recognized for reasons so apparent as to need no delineation here.

More than thirty years ago Charles W. Eliot stated that, "The American schools will never equal the schools of Germany and France until well-proved teachers can secure a tenure during behavior and efficiency like teachers in those countries." And throughout the last score of years educational literature is replete with discussions of teacher tenure.

Historically, the National Education Association granted teacher tenure recognition in its program as early as 1885. The next year the Massachusetts legislature enacted a law permitting local school districts to employ teachers for a term of service exceeding a year. The Boston School Committee in 1889 recommended a tenure law providing for a probationary

period of one year to be followed by annual elections for four years. Thereafter the teacher was to be accorded permanent tenure subject to removal for cause after hearing before a committee. Legislation proceeded slowly, however, so that by 1921 only Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey had enacted tenure laws. But, in the next three years, added impetus to the movement gave nine more states laws designed to protect teachers from a "hire-and-fire" policy so common to school boards.

Relevant researches - In 1910 Coffman obtained data from 5,215 teachers in 17 states with the objective of describing the teaching population in terms of certain social characteristics. His report of this research contains one of the earliest authoritative statements of the nature and extent of teacher movement. What Coffman terms the "problem of apprenticeship in teaching" is suggested in his data revealing a decided urban-ward direction in the movement:

"Of the 1,178 men, 48.1 per cent are at the present time teaching in the country, but 83 per cent of them began there; 35.7 per cent are teaching in towns and villages, but only 13 per cent of them started there; 16.2 per cent are in cities, but only 4 per cent of them commenced there. Of the 68 per cent of the 4,037 women who started in the country, but 41.6 per cent have remained there; 18 per cent began in towns and villages, but 32.6 per cent are teaching upon this level now; and although only 14 per cent of them began their careers in cities, 25.8 per cent are teaching in cities. Apparently the raw recruit gets his or her initial experience in the rural or semi-urban schools."¹

¹Coffman, L. D. The Social Composition of the Teaching Population. Contributions to Education, No. 41, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1911, p.22.

Another relatively early research inquiring into the extent, only, of teacher turnover was made in Windsor county, Vermont, by the Windsor County Young Men's Christian Association. Of the teachers in one union school district in Windsor county the report states:

"During the three years from 1910 to 1913 there were 117 different teachers in these towns (32 schools), of whom 40 served but one term in a school, 26 but two terms, and 27 but three terms. Only 4 remained in the same school three years, and these were in graded schools."²

A few years later Foght further emphasized the fact that rural teachers have a short tenure and a comparable experience, with these summary data:

"The average number of schools taught by each teacher is 3.4, and the average number of school months is 13.8, or almost two years to a school, counting the average school year in rural districts at 140 days. The total number of months taught by the average teacher is 45.4 school months, or about 6.5 school years."³

Early in the 1920's teacher turnover in the United States averaged 16 per cent yearly, while in certain states it was much higher. In Wisconsin,⁴ 68 per cent of the rural teachers were new in their positions in 1924 and in the same year in Washington,⁵ 76.9 per cent were new to their positions.

²Howard, J. R., Jr. "Boarding Round" and the Tramp Teacher. *The Survey*, 32 (1914), pp. 447-448.

³Foght, H. W. Efficiency and Preparation of Rural School Teachers. *Bureau of Education Bulletin*, 1914, No. 49. p. 30. Government Printing Office, Washington.

⁴National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, Vol. 62 (1924), pp. 252-253.

⁵*Ibid.* p. 477.

Another study⁶ made on a national basis found the median tenure in the public schools of the United States to be four years, with a median rural teacher tenure of two years.

Elsbree⁷ studied teacher turnover among a 15,841 personnel distributed among 57 cities and 68 villages of New York in the school year 1925-26. His is believed to be the first research that had as its objectives the reasons for along with the nature and amount of turnover, on any considerable scale. Gross turnover as determined by Elsbree's research is particularly concerned with avoidable turnover. Conclusions to be noted here are:

1. Rate of turnover is consistently higher in villages than in cities;
2. Rate of turnover tends to vary inversely with the size of community;
3. Rate of turnover among high school teachers is considerably higher than among elementary teachers;
4. Resigned to take a better position; resigned to be married, and dismissal rank in this order as reasons for teacher withdrawal, and
5. Leaving for better positions, to enter other work, and because of dismissal rank highest as reasons for withdrawal among village teachers; for city teachers marriage, illness, and home conditions are most important.

Only two researches known to the writer were designed to determine mobility among rural teachers, and these only in

⁶National Education Association. The Problem of Teacher Tenure. Research Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 5, November, 1924. 40 pp.

⁷Elsbree, W. S. Teacher Turnover in the State of New York. Contributions to Education, No. 300, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

part. The first⁸ was a study of the rural teacher - teacher of the one-room school - in Nebraska in 1914-15. Among its conclusions, the only one of interest here may be summarized thus: The rural teacher is a 21-year-old woman who expects to teach 1.85 terms. She hopes to become a grade teacher in town.

King⁹ in the school year 1917-18 made a status study of the rural teacher in Pennsylvania. As in the Nebraska study, rural teacher was taken to mean the teacher of the one-room school in the open country. Conclusions were based upon questionnaire responses from 1450 teachers in 18 counties. King estimated that for the 10,000-odd one-room schools of the state over a three-year period -

4,100 would have three different teachers,
4,400, one teacher for two years, and one
for one year, and
1,500, only, one teacher over the full three years.

The researches cited appear to be typical of the relatively large number in this field and include those most relevant to the present problem. All of the studies establish quantitatively the fact of teacher turnover, although it seems to have been an incidental objective in a number. None of them, however, reveals the detailed nature of teacher mobility,

⁸University of Nebraska Graduate School of Education. The Rural Teacher of Nebraska. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1919, No. 20. Government Printing Office, Washington.

⁹King, L. A. Status of the Rural Teacher in Pennsylvania. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1921, No. 34, Government Printing Office, Washington.

except by implication.

In addition to the relevant factual information contributed by research, note should also be made of a few typical statements relevant to this problem found frequently in professional periodicals -

Rural teachers regard removal to larger towns and cities as the only road to professional advancement.

Able and ambitious teachers are attracted to the cities where they have additional opportunities for enjoyment, recreation, and contacts with people.

The small town serves as a practice center for the inexperienced teacher, whose next move is to a larger town for further practice for a still larger town.

Generalizations of the kind noted have been made in good faith but rest heavily on empiric bases. This research was undertaken in an attempt to arrive at scientific knowledge of rural teacher mobility. Such knowledge should prove valuable to both lay and professional groups in ways to be suggested in a later section.

The Problem Delimited

Statement of objectives - Two major objectives form the basis for the procedure in this problem:

1. A description of the nature of the professional movement among rural school teachers in terms of -

- (1) The class of the employing school district;
- (2) The type of teacher, as identified by the grades taught;
- (3) Subject or subjects the individual teaches,

and

(4) Kind of position (teaching, supervisory, or administrative) the individual fills.

2. A definition of the chief factors or reasons actuating the movement among rural school teachers.

Definition of terms - For the purposes of this investigation terms are defined as follows:

1. Movement - Any change of position within the education profession (as implied in the statement of specific objectives) or from the education profession to some other occupation. For example, in successive years a teacher may be responsible for grades 1 - 3 and for grades 4 - 6 in the same employing school district; or, in the same high school organization a teacher may instruct in English one year and in the following year, English and Latin. In each case there is a change in position, or movement.

2. Class of school district - Section 101 of the School Laws of Pennsylvania is, in part: "Each city, incorporated town, borough, or township in this Commonwealth now existing, or hereafter created, shall constitute a separate school district"

Sections 102 - 105 of the same laws define the several classes of school districts in the Commonwealth. The meaning of these sections may be presented in tabular form:

<u>Class of school district</u>	<u>Population range</u>
1	: 500,000 or more
2	: 30,000 - 499,999
3	: 5,000 - 29,999
4	: Less than 5,000

3. Rural school teacher - Any teacher employed by school districts under the administration of county superintendents, excluding boroughs having a population of 2500 or more. ("Teacher" is here an inclusive term, meaning any public school employee having teaching, supervisory, or administrative responsibilities.)

This definition has for its basis Butterworth's¹⁰ conception of the term "rural school", that is, any school "below college grade found in areas of relatively low density of population." In Pennsylvania such areas are largely within the confines of the minor civil divisions known as townships. Borough school districts, except in a very few instances, have relatively denser populations than townships but those with population figures less than 2500 have education problems practically identical with those of townships. The accepted principles of the inter-relationship and the inter-dependence of village and country, or, borough and contiguous township, strengthen the comparison.

Brim, in his formulation of guiding principles for rural education, constitutes further authority for the meaning of the term rural education as expressed herein. He states,

"Rural, for practical purposes, may be assumed to include the open country as a nucleus, plus, to an as yet undetermined extent, certain more concentrated communities which should eventually be classified as rural or urban upon the basis of discovered characteristics."¹¹

¹⁰Butterworth, J. E., Rural School Administration, Chapter I, p. 3, Macmillan, 1926.

¹¹National Society for the Study of Education, Thirtieth Yearbook, Part 1, The Status of Rural Education, Chapter XI, p. 259, Public School Publishing Company, 1931.

In a study of this kind, the student would find it helpful to associate rural education, and in turn the rural teacher, with a particular class of school district. Pennsylvania school districts of the fourth class, all but a scattered few under the leadership of county superintendents, most closely serve that purpose. Borough school districts with populations between 2500 and 5000, of which there were 144 in this state in the year 1920, must, however, be ruled out. On the other hand, almost half of the 220 school districts of the third class are coterminous with townships and are administered by county superintendents and staffs. These cannot properly be ignored in a study of the rural teacher.

4. Teaching, supervisory, or administrative positions - "More than one half of the regular daily school session" is the criterion by which a position is determined to be either teaching, or supervisory, or administrative.

Scope of the study - It is obvious that a representative sample of teachers must be traced through a period of time embracing several successive yearly school terms in order to reveal significant tendencies in teacher mobility. The school year 1923-24 is chosen as its origin for the following reasons:

1. The important salary and certification enactments of the Pennsylvania legislature of 1921 were productive of an unstable condition which would color the results of a study beginning earlier.

2. The influence of the war in drawing teachers to, and retaining them in, industrial and commercial pursuits is felt to have become negligible by 1923-24, and

3. A study begun earlier would tend to impose added burdens upon the memory of respondents, and consequently impair the reliability of the results.

The investigation ends with the school year 1929-30. More by chance than by design 1929-30, in the light of more recent developments, represents a fortunate closing year for the study. The present demoralizing industrial depression is regarded as having begun late in the year 1929 but education escaped its more serious influences until the next school year, 1930-31. Among the depression effects which would have vitiated the results of the study the following deserve recognition:

1. A general tendency to tenacious teacher tenure, to hold on to teaching employment at all costs, at the expense frequently of normal and insistent professional improvement;

2. Some tendency by school boards to wholesale cancellation of teacher contracts with rumored subsequent appointments on a lowest-bidder basis;

3. Some absorption by education of workers released by industry;

4. A general tendency by boards of education

to abandon certain activities and to increase the teaching loads to keep within budgets, and

5. A declining marriage rate, tending to prolong abnormally the teaching service of women who fill about four-fifths of Pennsylvania's teaching positions.

Fifteen Pennsylvania counties, fairly representative of the whole state, were finally selected in which to apply the study:

Armstrong
Bradford
Centre
Chester
Crawford

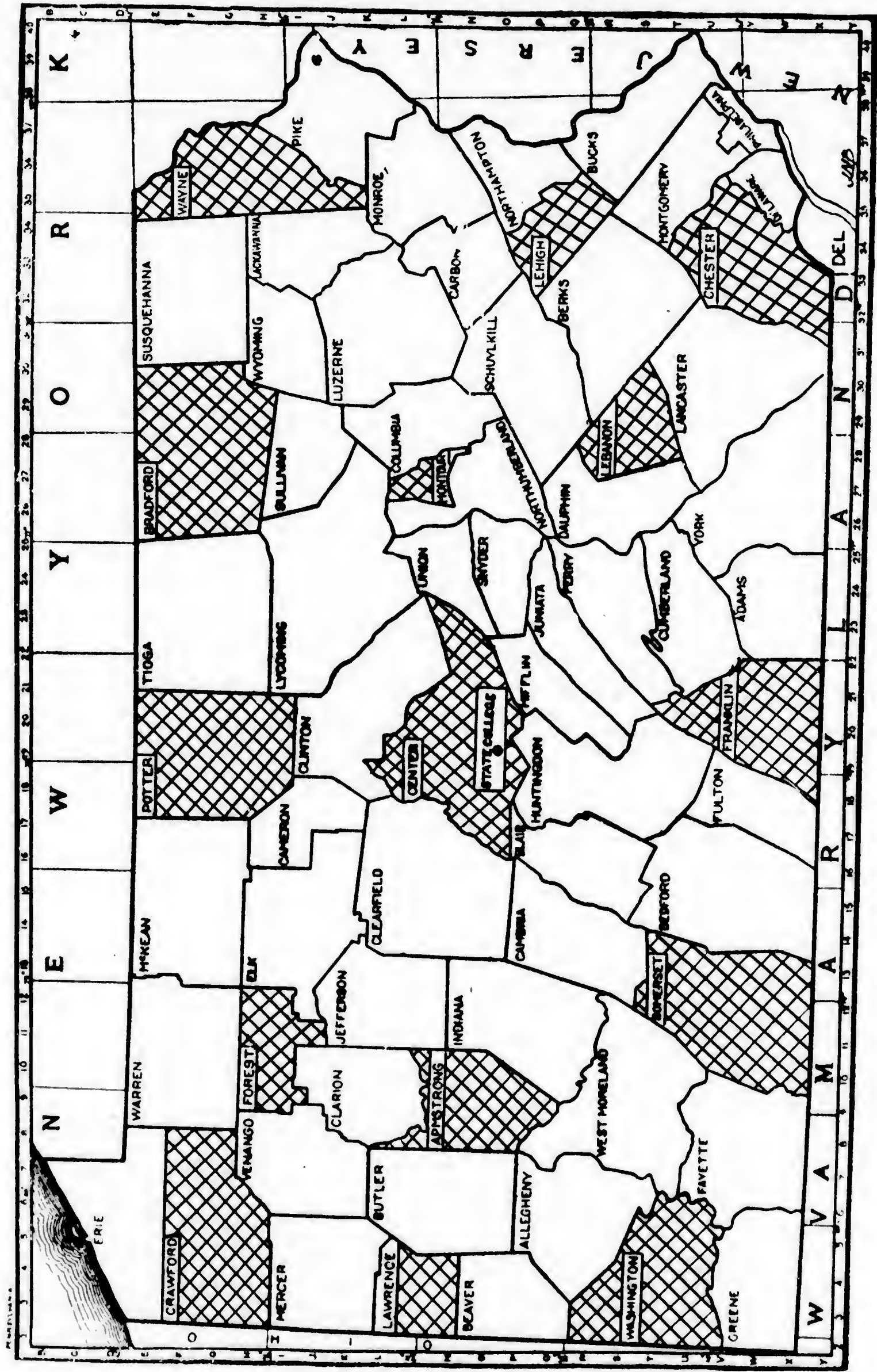
Forest
Franklin
Lawrence
Lebanon
Lehigh

Montour
Potter
Somerset
Washington
Wayne

This selection was made with respect to several criteria of representativeness. First, there was a tentative choice of 16 counties according to geographical location. This choice was then subjected to repeated revision as rural-population-per-square-mile-of-area and certain teacher criteria¹² were applied. After the step of constructing teacher rosters had been begun, substitutions for three of the original counties had to be made, and one county had to be omitted entirely. The counties substituted were selected by application of the same criteria.

Figure 1, p. 12, shows the geographical location of the selected counties within the state. They are highly representative.

¹²The latter will be discussed in a subsequent section beginning on p. 13.



IDENTIFIES COUNTIES INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

Probably the best single index of the attribute "rural" is rural-population-per-square-mile. If the 66 Pennsylvania counties¹³ are arranged in rank order according to rural population per square mile, as of the United States Census of 1920, the median county is found to have 56.6 persons per square mile. Similarly, the median county of those selected for this study is found to have 54.8 inhabitants per square mile.

The mean rural population per square mile is not so fair a measure of representativeness. For the state, excluding Philadelphia county, it is 69.4; for the counties of the sample, 56.7. The difference in these means becomes less significant, however, if the counties of Allegheny, Delaware, and Montgomery, serving as overflow areas, or suburbs, for the cities of Pittsburgh and Philadelphia, are excluded in calculating the mean rural population per square mile for the state. The mean for the state, thus revised, becomes 62.2 persons per square mile, with which the mean for the sample counties, 56.7, compares favorably.

All teachers employed by school districts under the direction of the county superintendents in the 15 counties selected, 25 boroughs having a population of 2500 or more excluded, constitute the potential personnel basis of this research. Examined in the light of the criteria sex and school level, certification, experience, and salary, this potential personnel is held to be very highly representative of the

¹³The state has a total of 67 counties but Philadelphia county is excluded because its population is wholly urban.

entire rural teaching force of the state. The following summary¹⁴ tables, derived from data¹⁵ for the school year 1923-24, show the validity of the total potential sample:

Table 1 - A sex and school-level comparison of the rural teachers in the selected counties with those of the state, expressed in percentages of the totals*

	Elementary school			High school**		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Selected counties	15.5	69.4	84.9	7.8	7.5	15.1
State	15.5	68.6	84.1	7.8	8.1	15.9

*Total numbers compared: Selected counties - 5237; state - 26,146.

**Includes supervising officials: Selected counties - 1.2 per cent; state - 1.7 per cent.

Table 2 - A certification comparison of the rural teachers in the selected counties with those of the state, expressed in percentages of the totals*

	Kind of certification				
	College	Normal school	Standard	Partial	Emergency**
Selected counties	9.0	30.7	22.1	33.3	4.9
State	9.2	31.0	22.9	32.4	4.5

*Total numbers compared: Selected counties - 5237; state - 26,146.

**To this category are added all holders of "special" certificates, relatively few in number, or roughly 20 per cent of the total credited to "emergency". It should be noted, however, that "special" and "emergency" are in no sense comparable; the former, usually, denotes a higher level of training and is listed intermediate to "normal school" and "standard."

¹⁴See Appendix A for the complete tables.

¹⁵Pennsylvania. Statistical Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1923-24. Harrisburg.

Table 3 - Experience comparison of the rural teachers in the selected counties with those of the state, expressed in percentages of the totals*

	Years of experience				
	Less than 5	5-9	10-14	15-19	20 or more
Selected counties	53.0	21.5	9.4	5.8	10.3
State	51.6	22.2	10.7	5.9	9.6

*Total numbers compared: Selected counties - 5241; state - 26,171. (See comment with the following table.)

Table 4 - Salaries comparison of the rural teachers in the selected counties with those of the state, expressed in percentages of the totals*

	Salary for the year						
	Less than \$700	\$700-899	\$900-1099	\$1100-1299	\$1300-1499	\$1500-1999	\$2000 or more
Selected counties	18.9	37.4	20.1	11.6	6.0	3.9	2.1
State	16.5	30.1	19.9	14.2	9.3	6.9	3.1

*Total numbers compared: Selected counties - 5241; state - 26,171. The whole numbers of teachers include four kindergarten teachers for the selected counties and 25 for the state. These were impossible to identify either by salary or experience in the source from which the data were secured.

In examining the foregoing tables it should be remembered that the total numbers of teachers compared are all those employed in districts under the administration of the county superintendents in the selected counties and in all the counties of the state. The entire teaching force of the state in 1923-24 numbered 51,703.

Further, data were not readily available for the elimination in any of the tables, either for the selected counties or for the state, of the teaching personnel of boroughs with populations of 2500 to 4999. These teachers numbered 651 in the selected counties in 1923-24. It is probable, however, that, except possibly for the salary criterion, the highly representative character of the teaching force in the counties selected would be lessened in no significant way.

CHAPTER II

COLLECTION AND TREATMENT OF DATA

Collection

The questionnaire used - One medium only, the mimeographed questionnaire, seemed feasible for the procurement of the data demanded by this problem. Teacher records at best are notoriously incomplete in rural school districts, omitting the reason-for-change factor entirely from consideration. Obviously any manner of personal contact was practically impossible.

In general the questionnaire¹ was constructed consistent with accepted principles. The broad scope of the problem, however, made some deviation unavoidable. Blank No. 1 designed to reveal the nature aspect of teacher mobility is an adaptation of a form used by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction some years earlier in a state-wide study of certain teacher-status elements.

Superintendent J. Andrew Morrow of Bradford county, this state, and the teachers under his direction courteously cooperated in supplying reasons for position changes for blank No. 2. Approximately 100 of these teachers listed reasons for changes in position made during the preceding five years on forms provided by the writer and distributed by Superintendent Morrow at the annual county teachers' institute in October, 1929. By combination and recombination these reasons were

¹The questionnaire used is reproduced in Appendix A.

reduced to less than a third of the original number to arrive at the 21 used in blank No. 2.

Presenting reasons to respondents, as in blank No. 2, admittedly may be criticised on the score of suggestibility. The method has the merits, however, of relieving the investigator from interpretative responsibilities, of lessening ambiguity, and of facilitating treatment of data. In this research the latter factors are considered to be most important.

Before adoption of the questionnaire in final form it was applied among the teachers in the State College borough school district and in a joint school district in Huntingdon county. Minor revisions were then made upon the basis of this trial.

Locating the teacher personnel - Rosters of the 1923-24 rural teaching personnel in the several counties were made from sources supplied by the county superintendents, usually the county institute annual. After the present addresses (spring of 1930) had been affixed in so far as possible here, the lists were submitted to the superintendents for checking, additions, and suggestions of sources for additional addresses.

Many former teachers were traced as a result of the belief that a peculiar esprit de corps characterizes the teacher groups employed by local rural school districts, and that individuals in such groups are likely to maintain certain relations although dissociated in place. Briefly, in cases of school districts for which a large block of addresses was

needed, teacher sources were chosen on the basis of the care and completeness characterizing the questionnaire responses from teachers of those districts. After all leads were followed up some few less than 3200 addresses, assumed to be sufficiently accurate for mailing purposes, were obtained. (A number of these were straggling receipts after the number of inquiries had closed at 3154.) Difficulties associated with locating personnel increased, both in kind and degree as the size of the county teaching group increased.

Inquiries issued and response - Preparation of the inquiries for mailing involved the usual mechanics. An explanatory letter² soliciting cooperation from the appropriate superintendent was attached to each questionnaire. The return envelope was addressed to the Department of Rural Education, State College, Pennsylvania. That the inquiries would bear the post mark of the appropriate county seat, they were shipped in bulk to the several superintendents. The same procedure was followed for both follow-up letters and duplicate questionnaires.

To reach the respondents, especially those continuing in the profession, before the school year 1929-30 closed was considered necessary to obtain a high percentage of replies. Although issue was heavy and rapid the last few months of that school year, a number of factors combined to defeat that

²The letter is an item of Appendix A. Several of the superintendents made adaptations of this letter in accord with individual style. Letters to the teachers of one county were signed by the writer and posted in State College.

purpose for a third of the counties. Last minute substitutions of counties, delays incident to the large number of cooperating elements, and hurried calls from superintendents swamped with requests for inquiry blanks from teachers who had lost the originals were some of these retarding elements. Inquiries were continued until the middle of the school year 1930-31 when a sufficient number of responses, originally complete and reworked, had been received.

It should be noted here that 387 incomplete responses were returned to the respondents for additions or clarification. Before return, however, a copy was made of each and notations of defects or omissions made on the original. This was done to insure at least partial use of the record in case the original was not returned.

Failure to indicate reasons for position changes accounted for a distinctly major share of the defective records. And for most of these it was quite evident that a position change was associated only with a change in employing school district, indicating that the carefully-drawn instructions heading blank No. 2 were either carelessly noted or wholly ignored. Failure to indicate the grades taught was the most common lapse for blank No. 1, with inadequate data for "kind of position" and "school and employing district" next in order.

All but 61 of the originals returned to the respondents for more adequate data were sent to the investigator with completed notations. Twenty copies of these 61 showed the nature aspect of the movement accurately enough for use in the

study. The remaining 41 record copies were discarded along with upwards of 50 others. The latter group were largely those that either lacked both identifying data and movement data sufficient for even partial use or were from individuals not included in the sample group. These are not included in the following inquiry - response summary:

1. Number of inquiries issued

Total originals	-	3154
(Duplicates - 877)		

2. Number of responses

Used in the study -

Complete at first receipt	-	1772
Complete at second receipt	-	326
Copies of originals		
partially usable	-	20
Total	-	2118

Discarded	-	41
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Total	-	2159
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3. Ratio of "2" to "1" in per cent-	68.5
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4. Number reported deceased	-	84
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Treatment of the Data

At the inception of this research it was planned to record all movement, however restricted in kind. Relatively few responses had been received, however, when the impracticability of this aim was apparent. Before any sorting of records could begin categories to guide sorting had to be established. After several groups had been tried, categories based upon the kind of school and grades taught seemed most useful. These were: (1) Teacher of the one-room school, grades 1-8; three graded-elementary-school-teacher categories, (2) grades 1-3, (3) grades 4-6, (4) grades 7-8; (5) high-

school teacher, grades 9-12.

The three categories adopted for the sorting of teachers in graded-elementary schools have documentary³ authority. In this report separate sequential curricular courses are recommended as preparation for kindergarten-primary teaching - kindergarten and grades 1-3; intermediate teaching - grades 4-6, and junior-high-school teaching - grades 7-9.

For this research, however, it seemed best to limit the last of the graded-elementary school divisions to grades 7-8, popularly known throughout rural Pennsylvania as the grammar grades. Factors influencing this deviation from the committee report are these:

1. In 1923-24 school organizations in Pennsylvania districts embraced by this study meeting standards for junior-high-school classification were very few.

2. On the other hand, the number of such organizations, self-styled, must have been many more. The term, "junior high school", bears a certain dignity and prestige among teachers of the upper elementary grades and of the lower high-school grades in rural districts. This would tend to augment unduly the number of junior high schools reported.

3. The single category, grades 7-8, for these doubtfully-defined school levels facilitates sorting and causes no serious distortion of the real facts.

³The General Curricular Revision Committee. Report of the Board of Normal School Principals, Harrisburg. March, 1926. p. 10.

Stated differently, the 8-4 type of organization may be said to characterize the 12-grade school systems of rural Pennsylvania.

In sorting the records many grade designations overlapping the categories chosen were, of course, found. Categories in these instances had to be arbitrarily and consistently determined. For examples, a designation of grades 3-4 taught classed the teacher with the intermediate group; grades 7-9 taught placed the teacher in the grammar group.

A first sorting of teacher records, then, removed those of respondents making no change in position and those having tenures of from one to six years in a position before leaving the profession for varied reasons. These two groups, numbering 440 and 303, were disposed of with ordinary methods of hand-tabulation.

The remaining records, about two-thirds of the 2118 used, were then assorted into the five categories. These ran the gamut of teacher movement and presented proportionate tabulation difficulty. Thirty-by-forty-inch sheets of cross-ruled paper, one each for the one-room, the graded-elementary, and the high-school groups, were ultimately found best.

An assumption, basic both to treatment and to presentation of the data, is: A teacher's status as to type (category as outlined on p. 22) in 1923-24 establishes the teacher's type-identification, irrespective of subsequent movement. The assumption is sound only in general; some teachers of each type do change type with varying frequency. But, its application in this research seemed imperative because of limita-

tions in facilities for handling the data. In describing teacher movement in the next chapter, qualifications of data are made in aspects conditioned by the assumption.

It should be noted, also, that in recording subjects taught, the 12 subjects included as part of blank No. 1 of the questionnaire were by combination and elimination reduced to seven distinct subject fields; Latin and modern foreign language to foreign language; music and art to arts; home economics, agriculture, and practical arts (as inserted in writing by respondents) to vocational subjects. These resultant subject fields are in general agreement with subject fields as outlined in "Standards for the Classification of Secondary Schools," a supervisory pamphlet dated December 1, 1929, issued by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction.

Health and physical education, and guidance were not recorded in the process of tabulation. Each is found to be taught by teachers in other subject fields, according to all-around convenience. Further, guidance as a subject taught has scarcely acquired any status in Pennsylvania rural schools.

A further deviation from the original plan of the study was in ignoring importance of reasons for position changes in tabulating causal data. So few respondents made any attempt to weight reasons and one reason only was indicated as a cause of change so frequently that distortion would have resulted. Furthermore, in a study involving so many changes in position the same end can be attained by showing causal relations in frequency distributions.

CHAPTER III

THE NATURE OF THE MOVEMENT

An adequate knowledge of the movement tendencies of school teachers can be had only by their description in accord with the fourfold nature of the movement, as conceived in the statement of specific objectives. This section of the discussion is directed to that end. Teacher movement through classes of school districts, by teacher types, by subjects taught, and by kinds of position is the order of treatment. Each aspect is described as movement within the profession and as movement from and to the profession. Status after movement is also shown for purposes of comparison with the 1923-24 status.

By School Districts

Within the profession - Amount and rate of movement among school districts by teachers of graded elementary schools are shown in Table 5.¹ They are presented by years and totals for each graded-school type.

¹Inasmuch as certain of the column headings and line titles of this table will be found in a number of the tables to follow, presenting the nature of the movement, particular note should be made of their meaning here.

Under "Movement by years" the year headings of the columns are those in which position changes actually were made. For example, changes in position made between the school years 1923-24 and 1924-25 were made in the summer of 1924.

"Number of teachers employed" means the number of original teachers, as of 1923-24, recorded as teaching in any year included in this research. In 1923-24, the year of origin of this study, 379 teachers were instructing grades 1-3, as may be

Table 5 - Extent of movement by the three types
of graded-elementary-school teacher among
school districts

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
Graded school, grades 1-3	Number of teachers employed	379	349	331	316	315	311	2001
	Number of position changes	24	30	20	16	18	16	124
	Percentage of mobility	6.3	8.6	6.0	5.1	5.7	5.1	6.2*
Graded school, grades 4-6	Number of teachers employed	279	248	236	216	214	212	1405
	Number of position changes	30	15	12	15	14	8	94
	Percentage of mobility	10.8	6.0	5.1	6.9	6.5	3.8	6.7*
Graded school, grades 7-8	Number of teachers employed	301	270	245	247	238	235	1536
	Number of position changes	42	26	16	15	28	24	151
	Percentage of mobility	13.9	9.6	6.5	6.1	11.8	10.2	9.8*

* Annual rate for the six-year period.

A representative sampling of teachers for any year would be expected to show a wide range in teaching experience - from none to 40 years or more. Through the operation of social and natural forces this sampling would be further expected to show a relatively high but gradually-diminishing rate of mobility in the first few subsequent years; later a rate of mobility approaching stability for a number of school terms.

While the data of Table 5 support this belief in a general way, the primary-grades² type shows a mobility rate somewhat high for 1928; the intermediate-grades type,

noted under the column headed 1924, this table. Reference to the columns headed 1926 and 1929 will show that in these respective years 331, and 311 of the original 379 teachers of grades 1-3 were employed. It should not be assumed, however, that these respective numbers of teachers remained in the profession continuously to these respective years; these are net numbers after corrections for withdrawing and reentering teachers among the original number for the type have been made. At the end of each year, after the first, some teachers withdrew and, beginning with 1926, each year some of the prior withdrawals became reentrants.

"Percentage of mobility" for any year is the ratio of the "Number of position changes" recorded for that year to the "Number of teachers employed" in the school term ending the same year, multiplied by 100. In 1927, for example, 16 of the 316 teachers of grades 1-3 employed in the school term ending with that year changed to a different school-district employer. The per cent rate of mobility in this instance is 5.1.

"Annual rate for the six-year period" is computed in the same manner as "Percentage of mobility", using the numbers shown in the column headed "Totals". The latter are the sums of the "Number of teachers employed" and of the "Number of position changes" for the six years, from 1924 to 1929 inclusive.

²The primary-grades, the intermediate-grades, and the upper-grades types of teacher are, respectively, other designations for the three graded-elementary-school teacher types grades 1-3, grades 4-6, and grades 7-8.

distinctly high rates in 1927 and 1928, and the upper-grades type, rates inordinately high in the last two years. Normal deviations would tend to be absorbed by a consolidation of the three types, yet the graded-school type retains the relatively high rates in the last two years (Table 6).

These apparently abnormal rates of mobility, considered alone, would tend to indicate an inadequate sampling of teachers of each type as well as of the types combined. An inspection of the numbers of teachers employed by years for each type will show, however, that the losses in personnel from the years immediately preceding the years of high mobility rates were relatively low in comparison with losses in the earlier years. This fact readily explains the abnormal mobility rates. Tables 8 to 11, showing the extent of the outward movement from and the inward movement to the profession for these types, further substantiate this explanation.

Other indices of the amount of movement of interest here are the annual rates for these types of teacher for the six-year period. The primary-grades type appears to be the most stable, and the upper-grades type the least stable. The average for the latter type deviates positively from the average for the types combined by 2.3 per cent (Table 6); the average for the former has a negative deviation of 1.3 per cent from the same standard.

In addition to these general aspects of teacher mobility among school districts, there remains the question of the

Table 6 - Extent of movement by teachers of one-room, graded-elementary, and high schools, and by teachers of all schools, among school districts

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
One-room school	Number of teachers employed	927	774	684	647	629	615	4276
	Number of position changes	169	100	93	89	80	78	609
	Percentage of mobility	18.2	12.9	13.6	13.7	12.7	12.7	14.2*
Graded school, grades 1-8	Number of teachers employed	959	867	812	779	767	758	4942
	Number of position changes	96	71	48	46	60	48	369
	Percentage of mobility	10.0	8.2	5.9	5.9	7.8	6.3	7.5*
High** school	Number of teachers employed	232	199	187	176	170	173	1137
	Number of position changes	30	17	12	16	18	11	104
	Percentage of mobility	12.9	8.5	6.4	9.1	10.6	6.4	9.1*
All schools	Number of teachers employed	2118	1840	1683	1602	1566	1546	10355
	Number of position changes	295	188	153	151	158	137	1082
	Percentage of mobility	13.9	10.2	9.1	9.4	10.1	8.9	10.4*

*Annual rate for the six-year period.

**Includes supervisory - administrative officials.

extent of teacher movement by specific classes of employing school districts. Table 7, p. 31, presents these data for all types of teacher.

The data of Table 6 are of prior interest, however; they show the general school-district movement tendencies of teachers of one-room schools, of graded schools, of high schools, and of all schools, and make comparisons among all types. These data may be interpreted in the same manner as the data of the preceding table.

There is a rather even rate of teacher mobility among school districts by teachers of one-room schools after two terms have been served. Their annual rate of movement for the six-year period, 14.2, is almost twice that of the graded elementary-school type.

The high-school type has distinctly high rates of movement for the years 1927 and 1928, comparing favorably in this respect with the graded-school, 4-6, type. With this type also the annual rate for the six-year period is higher than for the graded-school type but slightly lower than for the upper-grades type.

A combination of all types of teacher, involving an original personnel of 2118, fails to negate the influence of abnormal mobility years noted for specific types; the rates for the years 1927 and 1928 remain relatively high. Largely through the influence of teachers of one-room schools, the annual rate of mobility for the six-year period for all teachers among school districts is seen to be slightly higher

than for any specific type of teacher.

Teachers employed in school districts of the third class tend to become much more firmly established in their positions than teachers in districts of the fourth class (Table 7). While the differences in the rates of movement for the two classes of districts are not especially marked for the several graded-school types of teacher, and for their combined type, they are striking for teachers of one-room schools, of high schools, and of all schools. The holding power of the third class of school district may be said to be more than twice that of the fourth-class district, as measured by teacher movement among school districts alone.

Table 7 - Teachers employed in fourth- and in third-class school districts compared by their annual rates of mobility for the six-year period

Class of school district	Type of teacher			
	One-room school	Graded school*	High school	All schools
Fourth	15.0	7.7	9.8	11.0
Third **	3.6	5.6	2.9	4.7

* Annual rates for the six-year period for teachers of grades 1-3 are 6.4 and 5.1 for district classes 4 and 3, respectively; grades 4-6, 6.9 and 5.1, and grades 7-8, 10.0 and 7.9.

** Includes second- and first-class districts also. Only ten teachers of all types moved directly to these classes within the seven years embraced by this study.

From the profession - Amount and rate of withdrawal from and of reentrance to the profession for each teacher type and for all types are expressed in Tables 8 to 11, inclusive. For purposes of clarity in interpretation, two status elements, "Net number of teachers withdrawn" and "Net percentage withdrawn" are also included in these tables.

As with teacher movement among school districts, an examination of the tables shows there is no regularity in teacher withdrawal from the profession for any type of teacher except that of the one-room school. There is this difference, however: While in the preceding aspect of movement, years of abnormal movement were fairly constant for all types of teacher, for withdrawal there is no approach to consistency in peak years. This fact appears to explain a slightly more orderly-diminishing yearly rate of withdrawal for the graded-school, combined type, teacher.

Ignoring a slightly higher rate of withdrawal for the second year, teachers of the one-room school present a fairly evenly-diminishing rate of withdrawal. This is true also for all teacher types combined.

In terms of the annual rates of withdrawal for the six-year period, the tables show that the lower two graded-school, and the high-school types of teacher have slightly higher rates than in movement among school districts. All other types have lower rates than for the former aspect of movement, while rates for the graded-school, combined type, teacher are practically identical. The annual rate of withdrawal for teachers of

Table 8 - Withdrawal from, and reentrance, and net loss to the profession by teachers of graded-elementary schools, grades 1-3

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement or status by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
Graded school, grades 1-3	Number of teachers employed	379	349	331	316	315	311	2001
	Number of withdrawals	30	30	26	14	12	22	134
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	7.9	8.6	7.9	4.4	3.8	7.1	6.7*
	Number of reentrants	-	12	11	13	8	7	51
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	40.0	22.9	20.6	12.5	10.3	18.7*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	30	48	63	64	68	83	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	7.9	12.6	16.6	16.9	18.0	21.9	-

(These notes apply also to Tables 9-11:)

*Annual rate for the six-year period.

**"Per cent rate of reentrance" for any year is based upon the "net number teachers withdrawn" for the preceding year; for "totals," i.e., annual rate, "net number teachers withdrawn" from 1924 to 1928, inclusive.

***"Net number of teachers withdrawn" for any year is found by subtracting the "number of reentrants" for that year from the sum of "number of withdrawals" for that year and "net number teachers withdrawn" for the preceding year. The "net number of teachers withdrawn" for any year added to the "number of teachers employed" the succeeding year equals the original personnel for any teacher type.

****"Net percentage withdrawn" is always computed from the original personnel, as given in the column headed 1924, as a base.

Table 9 - Withdrawal from, and reentrance, and net loss to the profession by teachers of graded-elementary schools, grade types 4-6, and 7-8

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement or status by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
Graded school, grades 4-6	Number of teachers employed	279	248	236	216	214	212	1405
	Number of withdrawals	31	22	24	13	15	12	117
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	11.1	8.9	10.2	6.0	7.0	5.7	8.3*
	Number of reentrants	-	10	4	11	13	3	41
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	32.3	9.3	17.5	20.0	4.5	15.2*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	31	43	63	65	67	76	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	11.1	15.4	22.6	23.3	24.0	27.2	-
Graded school, grades 7-8	Number of teachers employed	301	270	245	247	238	235	1536
	Number of withdrawals	31	29	11	17	14	13	115
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	10.3	10.8	4.5	6.9	5.9	5.5	7.5*
	Number of reentrants	-	4	13	8	11	14	50
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	12.9	23.2	14.8	17.5	21.2	18.5*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	31	56	54	63	66	65	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	10.3	18.6	17.9	20.9	21.9	21.6	-

Table 10 - Withdrawal from, and reentrance, and net loss to the profession by teachers of graded-elementary schools, types combined, and by teachers of high schools

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement or status by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
Graded school, combined type	Number of teachers employed	959	867	812	779	767	758	4942
	Number of withdrawals	92	81	61	44	41	47	366
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	9.6	9.3	7.5	5.7	5.4	6.2	7.4*
	Number of reentrants	-	26	28	32	32	24	142
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	28.3	19.0	17.8	16.7	11.9	17.5*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	92	147	180	192	201	224	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	9.6	15.3	18.8	20.0	21.0	23.3	-
High school	Number of teachers employed	232	199	187	176	170	173	1137
	Number of withdrawals	33	18	21	18	7	12	109
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	14.2	9.1	11.2	10.2	4.1	6.9	9.6*
	Number of reentrants	-	6	10	12	10	5	43
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	18.2	22.2	21.4	16.1	8.5	16.9*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	33	45	56	62	59	66	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	14.2	19.4	24.1	26.7	25.4	28.4	-

Table 11 - Withdrawal from, and reentrance, and net loss to the profession by teachers of one-room schools, and by teachers of all schools

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement or status by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
One-room school	Number of teachers employed	927	774	684	647	629	615	4276
	Number of withdrawals	153	130	97	79	60	47	566
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	16.5	16.8	14.2	12.2	9.5	7.6	13.2*
	Number of reentrants	-	40	60	61	46	41	248
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	26.1	24.7	21.8	15.4	13.1	19.3*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	153	243	280	298	312	318	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	16.5	26.2	30.2	32.1	33.7	34.3	-
All schools	Number of teachers employed	2118	1840	1683	1602	1566	1546	10355
	Number of withdrawals	278	229	179	142	108	106	1042
	Per cent rate of withdrawal	13.1	12.5	10.6	8.9	6.9	6.8	10.1*
	Number of reentrants	-	72	98	106	88	70	434
	Per cent rate of reentrance**	-	25.9	22.5	20.5	15.9	12.2	18.5*
	Net number teachers withdrawn***	278	435	516	552	572	608	-
	Net percentage withdrawn****	13.1	20.5	24.4	26.1	27.0	28.7	-

grades 7-8, 2.3 per cent lower than in the former aspect of movement, may present a significant difference but the data suggest no reason for it. The intermediate-grades teacher is seen to have the highest annual withdrawal rate among the graded-school types, each of which has a rate lower than the one-room school and high-school types. The annual rate for the latter is approximately the same as for all teachers.

Return to the profession - A study of the per cent rates of reentrance to the profession, by years, for the several teacher types shows some irregularities, although not so marked as in the instance of outward movement. In this respect teachers of grades 4-6 and of grades 7-8 appear more inclined to irregularity. Here, as in other aspects of movement shown, teachers of one-room schools tend to be more regular in movement.

Teachers of grades 4-6 have the lowest annual rate of reentrance for the five-year period³; teachers of one-room schools, the highest. Omitting from consideration the latter type of teacher, a study of annual rates for withdrawal and return shows that roughly as the annual rate of withdrawal decreases, the annual rate of return increases, using the figures for the graded-school, combined type, teacher as a basis. This suggests a probable positive correlation between

³Teachers who had left the profession at the end of the first year embraced by this research could not return to the profession before the third year. So, annual rates of reentrance must be computed for a five-year period, 1925-26 to 1929-30 inclusive.

the retentive and the attractive powers that a particular grade group presents for teachers, as measured by low annual rate of withdrawal and high annual rate of reentrance, respectively. Conditions under which teachers of one-room schools practice the profession are such as to class them apart from the other types studied for whom social and working conditions are fairly uniform.

In net percentage withdrawn, teachers of the one-room school again lead with a percentage of 34.3 in the last year. This means that one out of every three such teachers is lost to the profession at the end of six years. This type tends to increase the mortality for the entire sample which is seen to be 28.7 in the last year, or a loss of two out of every seven rural⁴ teachers at the end of six years.

For the graded-school types, lower- and upper- grades, the losses at the end of six years are significantly lower, amounting roughly to one in five for each. The intermediate-grades and the high-school types approximate the loss for teachers of all schools.

The questions of the relative retentive and attractive powers of fourth- and of third-class school districts, as indicated by rates of withdrawal and reentrance are now suggested. Significant data are presented in Table 12 for the general types, and for all types, of rural school teachers.

⁴"Rural" teacher, in this instance and in later sections of the manuscript, means a teacher of the all-schools type, or an all-types-combined teacher.

Table 12 - Withdrawal from and reentrance to school districts of the fourth and third classes compared by the annual rates* for the common teacher types

Class of school district	Type of teacher							
	One-room school		Graded school**		High school		All schools	
	Percentage rate of		Percentage rate of		Percentage rate of		Percentage rate of	
	With-drawal	Reen-trance	With-drawal	Reen-trance	With-drawal	Reen-trance	With-drawal	Reen-trance
Fourth	13.6	7.9	7.8	3.5	9.7	4.7	10.6	5.5
Third***	4.6	6.8	4.2	4.9	8.6	6.4	4.8	5.6

*The annual rate of withdrawal for a class of district is the ratio of the total number of withdrawals from the class to the total number of teachers of that class from which withdrawals were made. Annual rate of reentrance for a district class is the ratio of the total reentrants to that class to the total number of teachers in the class after re-entries were made.

**Annual withdrawal and reentrance rates for fourth- and for third-class school districts for the three graded-school teacher types are respectively: Type 1-3: 7.3 and 3.5 to 3.0 and 4.4; type 4-6: 9.0 and 4.0 to 3.9 and 3.3; type 7-8: 7.5 and 6.9 to 3.8 and 8.7

***Includes the two higher classes of school districts. For all teacher types combined only two withdrew from, and seven reentered these classes.

Annual rates of withdrawal for the six-year period are consistently higher for all teacher types employed in school districts of the fourth class. Only for the upper-grades and the high-school types are the differences in rates not especially significant. Teachers in one-room schools of fourth-class districts withdraw three times as rapidly as those in third-class districts; the rates of withdrawal are, respectively, 13.6 and 4.6. Teachers of graded schools withdraw

from fourth- and from third-class school districts at the annual rates of 7.8 and 4.2, respectively - or in the rough proportion of two to one; teachers of all schools, at the annual rates of 10.6 and 4.8, respectively - or in the approximate ratio of nine to four.

The differences between the attractive powers of the two classes of districts are not so marked when their annual rates of reentrance are noted. For teachers of one-room schools and of grades 4-6, the differences favor slightly the fourth-class school district. For every other teacher type the difference in rates of reentrance favors the district of the third class. For the upper-grades type the chances are nine to four a teacher will reenter the profession by the third-class district rather than by the fourth; rates of reentrance for the two classes of districts are, respectively, 8.7 and 3.8. Four high-school teachers reenter teaching by third-class districts to every three by fourth-class districts; reentrance rates for the type are, respectively, 6.4 and 4.7. Annual reentrance rates for teachers of all schools indicate, however, that the rural teacher reenters the profession with no significant preference as to class of school district.

Effects of these tendencies to movement on teacher status - In order that the effects of these tendencies to movement by school teachers may be more clearly understood Tables 13 and 14 are presented. They show, in percentages

of the whole number of teachers of each type employed by years, teacher distribution between the two classes of school districts. As gains are shown for one class of district comparable losses are shown for the other.

Gains for third-class districts are consistent, although not always by regular increments, for all types of teacher except those of grades 1-3 and 4-6, and of high schools. For each of these in a later year the third class of district experiences a negligible loss. Teachers of grades 7-8 show irregular percentage gains for the third class but do not neutralize the losses to this class among teachers of grades 1-3 and 4-6 in 1928-29, as may be noted for the graded-school types combined. The closest approach to a constant increment for the third-class district results from the movement of the rural teacher, shown in the percentages for all teacher types combined.

These data, studied from a different angle, show that the greatest gain to third-class districts results from high-school-teacher movements; the initial percentage of these in such districts is quintupled. Teachers of one-room schools and of the upper-elementary grades rank next in order in contributing to the gains of third-class districts, the percentages for the class being tripled and doubled, respectively, by their movement-tendencies. For all types the third-class district percentage is doubled.

A study of the several table series has shown that the third class of school district has gained as a result of each

Table 13 - Class-of-school-district status of teachers of the graded-school types expressed in percentages of their numbers remaining in the profession by years

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Number, and class-of-district status, of teachers		School year						
			1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Graded school, grades 1-3	Number of teachers employed		379	349	331	316	315	311	296
	Percentage in school district of class	4	87.3	86.2	84.0	83.2	81.9	82.0	81.4
		3*	12.7	13.8	16.0	16.8	18.1	18.0	18.6
Graded school, grades 4-6	Number of teachers employed		279	248	236	216	214	212	203
	Percentage in school district of class	4	90.0	89.5	88.1	86.1	84.6	85.4	84.7
		3*	10.0	10.5	11.9	13.9	15.4	14.6	15.3
Graded school, grades 7-8	Number of teachers employed		301	270	245	247	238	235	236
	Percentage in school district of class	4	94.7	94.4	93.9	93.1	92.0	91.9	90.7
		3	5.3	5.6	6.1	6.9	8.0	8.1	9.3
Graded school, combined types	Number of teachers employed		959	867	812	779	767	758	735
	Percentage in school district of class	4	90.4	89.7	88.2	87.2	85.8	86.0	85.3
		3*	9.6	10.3	11.8	12.8	14.2	14.0	14.7

*Includes also those few teachers who moved to, or re-entered the profession to, second-class school districts. Their percentages are negligible, with none for teachers of grades 7-8. Three teachers of the combined types were found in second-class districts in 1925-27, and five in each of the last three years.

Table 14 - Class-of-school-district status of teachers of one-room, graded-elementary, and high schools, and of all schools expressed in percentages of their numbers remaining in the profession by years

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Number, and class-of-district status, of teachers		School year						
			1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
One-room school	Number of teachers employed		927	774	684	647	629	615	609
	Percentage in school district of class	4	96.8	95.3	94.4	91.8	90.6	89.8	89.3
		3*	3.2	4.7	5.6	8.2	9.4	10.2	10.7
Graded school	Number of teachers employed		959	867	812	779	767	758	735
	Percentage in school district of class	4	90.4	89.7	88.2	87.2	85.8	86.0	85.3
		3*	9.6	10.3	11.8	12.8	14.2	14.0	14.7
High** school	Number of teachers employed		232	199	187	176	170	173	166
	Percentage in school district of class	4	97.0	93.0	89.8	88.1	88.2	86.1	84.3
		3*	3.0	7.0	10.2	11.9	11.8	13.9	15.7
All schools	Number of teachers employed		2118	1840	1683	1602	1566	1546	1510
	Percentage in school district of class	4	93.9	92.4	90.9	89.1	88.0	87.5	86.8
		3*	6.1	7.6	9.1	10.9	12.0	12.5	13.2

*Includes also those few teachers who moved to, and re-entered the profession to, second-class school districts. Their percentages are negligible, with high school teachers making the best showing. Among these, three are found in second-class districts in 1926-29; six, in 1929-30.

**Includes supervisory-administrative officials.

kind of teacher movement, that is, within the profession, withdrawal, and reentrance. Data not here presented show that teacher movement inter-district in nature, that is, movement from fourth class to third, and vice versa, invariably results in a gain for the district of the third class, regardless of teacher type. This movement also appears to be productive of the larger part of the total gain.

The net result of the combined withdrawal-reentrance movement was a gain in numbers for teachers in third-class districts for each teacher type except the grades 4-6 and the high-school types. In 1923-24, 93.9 per cent of all rural teachers were in fourth-class districts; 6.1 per cent in third (Table 14). While 4.5 per cent of all withdrawals over the six-year period were from third-class districts, the reentrants to this class were 11.7 per cent of the total number returning to the profession.

To convey an idea of the opportunity presented for movement to school districts of the third class it should be noted that this research has for its locale approximately 500 school districts under the direction of superintendents in 15 counties. Of these districts, just nine are of the third class. There are, however, in these counties 22 other districts of the third, or a higher, class, each having its own school superintendent. Four of these counties have districts of the fourth class only, while one county has nine third-class districts to its 52 of the fourth class.

The median number of third-class school districts in these 15 counties is two. The total number, 31, is six per cent of the total number of districts of all classes. The chances for a teacher's becoming identified with a district of the third class when movement occurs may be said, therefore, to be six in 100. This manner of stating opportunity discounts possible proximity of third-class districts in contiguous counties.

In the light of the opportunity just discussed, the gains through teacher movement to school districts of the third class become strikingly significant.

Summary - The more important facts of rural teacher movement among school districts, and from, and to the profession as revealed in this research are;

1. In movement among school districts teachers of grades 1-3 in the graded school appear to be the most stable type; teachers of the one-room schools, the least stable. The annual rate of mobility for the six-year period for the latter, 14.2 per cent (Table 6), is more than twice that of the former, 6.2 (Table 5).

2. The annual rate of mobility for teachers of all types, 10.4, means that one out of every ten rural teachers makes a change in employing district each year (Table 6).

3. The annual rates of mobility for teachers employed in third-, and in fourth-class school districts,

respectively 4.7 and 11.0 (Table 7), suggest a retentive influence for the former 2.3 times that of the latter.

4. Withdrawal from the profession is most frequent among teachers of one-room schools; least frequent, among teachers of grades 1-3. The ratio of withdrawal for the two types is 2 to 1 (Tables 8-11).

5. The annual withdrawal rate for all teachers is one in ten. High school teachers withdraw approximately at the same rate (Tables 10 and 11).

6. Teachers of one-room schools are the most probable reentrants to the profession; teachers of grades 4-6 are the least probable reentrants (Tables 8-11).

7. Differences in the rates of reentrance among the several teacher types are not so marked as in rates for withdrawal.

8. Teachers of one-room schools are lost to the profession at the approximate rate of one in three at the end of six years. With graded-school teachers, the primary- and the upper-grades types, the approximate rate of loss is one in five over the same period (Tables 8, 9, and 11).

9. The rural teacher quits the profession at the rate of two in seven in six years (Table 11).

10. Third-class school districts have a significant retentive power in comparison with districts of the

fourth class. Teachers of all schools withdraw from the former at an annual rate of 4.8; from the latter, at an annual rate of 10.6 (Table 12).

11. While withdrawn teachers from the upper-grades, and the high-school types are probable re-entrants to the profession through districts of the third class, the average rural teacher reenters with but a slight preference for this class (Table 12).

12. Each teacher type contributes to the relative gain in teaching personnel in school districts of the third class if the several aspects of movement - within, from, and to the profession - are combined. High school, one-room school, and upper-grade elementary-school teachers rank in this order as significant contributors.

13. Relative gains of third-class districts in teaching personnel at the expense of districts of the fourth class appear to result largely from movement within the profession.

14. Rural teachers, or teachers of all types combined, have about six chances in a hundred to become identified with school districts of the third class. Opportunity so meager tends to magnify the retentive-attractive influence of the class.

By Teacher Types

To guard against possible misinterpretations of the tabular data, presented later, showing the nature of rural teacher movement by teacher types, certain terms peculiar to this aspect of movement are first to be defined and their implications explained. Inter-type-of-teacher movement, or its shortened form, inter-type movement, is a general term, inclusive of every change in position involving a change in teacher type. It is descriptive of the data of Tables 15 and 16, for example, and includes these specific kinds of movement by teacher types:

1. True inter-type movement, in which teacher identity as to type changes. Movement from a position with grades 4-6 to a position with grades 1-3 is an example. To distinguish this specific kind of movement by type from the inclusive term, inter-type movement, the word "true" is always used as a qualifier.

2. Identical-type movement, in which teacher identity as to type remains the same. This definition seems paradoxical; movement is construed to occur when there seems to be no movement. In a strict sense, there cannot, of course, be identical-type movement. In order, however, to facilitate the problems incident to the tabulation of the data of this research, this term is applied to cases of teacher movement from one school organization to a different school organization in the

same employing school district, with status as to type remaining the same. (On the other hand, cases of teacher movement between different employing school districts, with no change in teacher type, are recorded under movement by school districts.)

Movement from a one-room school to a different one-room school in the same school district; movement from a one-room school to a position in a graded school (or in the reverse order) in the same school district, and movement between two graded-school organizations, with no change in teacher type, in the same school district, are examples of identical-type movement. In the high-school category, movement between types is always made by supervisory-administrative officials whose duties are either expanded or contracted by a change in responsibility, as from grades 1-8 to grades 1-12, or vice versa. Such officials are included in the high-school category because they are too few in number to warrant a special type.

Other terms used synonymously herein with identical-type movement are intra-type movement, and school-to-school movement. School-to-school movement is, doubtless, the most meaningful of the three terms. And, as a particular kind of movement, it is probably more closely related to movement by school districts than to movement by teacher type. For example, teacher movement from a one-room school to a different one-room school, irrespec-

tive of any or no change in employing school district, would seem by nature to be a single kind of movement. But, largely because the basic sorting of teacher records was by teacher types, school-to-school movement is presented herein as an element of movement by teacher types.

Within the profession - The tendencies of rural teachers of each type to inter-type movement are shown in Tables 15 and 16. In this broad aspect of movement, as in that by school districts, the same general tendency toward stability in the later years may be noted for each type except high-school teachers. Abnormal rates of mobility for particular years for each teacher type are also noted but greater than in movement by school districts, both in number and in degree. In 1927, for example, the rates for both the primary- and the upper-grades types would seem abnormally low compared with the rates in earlier and later years; the rate for the middle-grades type, abnormally high. A further fact to be noted is that the effects of abnormal movement in particular years for specific types are carried over into both combinations of types, the graded- and the all-schools types. In the graded-school type this effect is not so pronounced as in the all-schools type, as may be noted in Table 16.

A comparison of all teacher types based on annual rates of inter-type mobility for the six-year period shows teachers of the one-room school with a rate of 23.5 to be most mobile; teachers of grades 1-3 with a rate of 10.2, the most stable.

Table 15 - Extent of movement by the three types of
graded-elementary-school teacher among
teacher types

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
Graded school, grades 1-3	Number of teachers employed	379	349	331	316	315	311	2001
	Number of position changes	51	41	31	25	29	28	205
	Percentage of mobility	13.5	11.7	9.4	7.9	9.2	9.0	10.2*
Graded school, grades 4-6	Number of teachers employed	279	248	236	216	214	212	1405
	Number of position changes	46	35	28	32	21	20	182
	Percentage of mobility	16.5	14.1	11.8	14.8	9.8	9.4	13.0*
Graded school, grades 7-8	Number of teachers employed	301	270	245	247	238	235	1536
	Number of position changes	55	24	28	22	32	27	188
	Percentage of mobility	18.3	8.9	11.4	8.9	13.4	11.5	12.2*

* Annual rate for the six-year period.

Table 16 - Extent of movement by teachers of one-room, graded-elementary, and high schools, and by teachers of all schools, among teacher types

Type of teacher 1923-24	Bases and indices of mobility	Movement by years						Totals
		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
One-room school	Number of teachers employed	927	774	684	647	629	615	4276
	Number of position changes	276	181	177	122	133	114	1003
	Percentage of mobility	29.8	23.4	25.9	18.9	21.1	18.5	23.5*
Graded school, grades 1-8	Number of teachers employed	959	867	812	779	767	758	4942
	Number of position changes	152	100	87	79	82	75	575
	Percentage of mobility	15.9	11.5	10.7	10.1	10.7	9.9	11.6*
High** school	Number of teachers employed	232	199	187	176	170	173	1137
	Number of position changes	5	3	6	4	4	6	28
	Percentage of mobility	2.2	1.5	3.2	2.3	2.4	3.5	2.5*
All schools	Number of teachers employed	2118	1840	1683	1602	1566	1546	10855
	Number of position changes	433	284	270	205	219	195	1606
	Percentage of mobility	20.4	15.4	16.0	12.8	14.0	12.6	15.5*

*Annual rate for the six-year period.

**Includes supervisory-administrative officials.

Differences among the rates for the three graded-school types are less significant than in movement by school districts. Among these three types the intermediate-grades type is most mobile, 13 out of every 100 teachers making inter-type changes yearly. The annual rate for the graded-school types combined, 11.6, is just half the rate for teachers of the one-room school. For every 1000 rural teachers in service, inter-type position changes are made by 155 each year, as indicated by the annual rate, 15.5, for the six-year period for all types combined.

Each annual rate of inter-type mobility for the six-year period shown in the tables under consideration contains elements of movement which are not, strictly defined, inter-type movement. Rather they are movement between positions of identical type but in the same employing school district, as explained on p. 48. For example, the annual rate of inter-type mobility for teachers of the one-room-school type must be corrected for the amounts of the several kinds of identical-type movement it contains in order to arrive at the annual rate of true inter-type movement. Teachers of the one-room school in 1923-24 tend to become diffused through all other teacher types in later years, as may be noted in Table 20. And, as teachers of other types, they make identical-type position changes as of those types. Teachers of other types, as of 1923-24, tend also to become diffused in varying degrees among all teacher types in later years

(Tables 19 to 21) and also run the gamut of identical-type position changes. For the high-school type, however, the diffusion is negligible.

Of the 1003 inter-type position changes shown in Table 16 for teachers of the one-room school, 498 were intra- or identical-type in nature, as shown by data from the original tabulation sheets. Four hundred seventy three of the latter number were position changes from one-room schools to other one-room schools; eight, from a position with grades 1-3 in one school to the same position in another school; five, between different schools as intermediate-grades teacher, and twelve as upper-grades teacher between different school organizations.

The amount of identical-type movement for any teacher type may conveniently be expressed as its per cent relation to the total amount of inter-type movement for the type. For the one-room-school type it is, therefore, the ratio of 498 to 1003, multiplied by 100, or 49.7 per cent. By applying this per cent factor to the annual rate of inter-type movement, 23.5, for teachers of the one-room school over the six-year period, the annual rate of true inter-type movement for the type becomes 11.8 per cent. (Multiply 23.5 by the difference between 100 per cent and 49.7 per cent.)

The percentages of inter-type movement which are identical-type in nature for each of the other teacher types, determined in the same manner as for the one-room-school

type from data from the original tabulation sheets, are: Grades 1-3, 24.9; grades 4-6, 20.3; grades 7-8, 21.8; graded-school types combined, 22.4, and high school, 60.7. By applying these per cent factors to the respective annual rates of inter-type mobility, as shown in Tables 15 and 16, for these teacher types, the annual rates of true inter-type mobility become: Grades 1-3, 7.7; grades 4-6, 10.4; grades 7-8, 9.5; graded-school types combined, 9.0; high school, 1.0.

The significance of identical-type, or school-to-school, movement in its relation to true inter-type movement and to all teacher movement inter-type in nature may be noted from a different viewpoint in Table 17. In the foregoing discussion the amounts of identical-type movement for the several teacher types were determined for the types as of 1923-24, or the assumed types. The data of Table 17, however, are derived from a composite of the inter-type movement data for each of the several types. Types as of 1923-24 disappear in the consolidation, and inter-type movement is represented as of the actual type at the time movement takes place.

For example, a teacher of the one-room school, as of 1923-24, in a later year becomes a teacher of grades 1-3. The following year this teacher takes a position with grades 1-3 in a different school organization in the same school district. Whereas in the foregoing discussion this element

of identical-type movement is associated with the one-room-school type of teacher, in Table 17 it is represented as identical-type movement by the grades 1-3 type of teacher, the type-identity of the teacher at the time of movement.

Table 17 - Kinds of inter-type-of-teacher movement, with their amounts expressed in percentages* of the total number (1606) of changes in teacher type made by all teachers

Movement from positions in		Movement to positions in					
		One-room schools	Graded schools, grades			High schools**	All schools
			1-3	4-6	7-8		
One-room schools		<u>31.8</u>	7.7	7.4	9.3	0.7	56.9
Graded schools, grades	1 - 3	3.5	<u>2.9</u>	5.4	1.6	0.1	13.5
	4 - 6	2.9	3.7	<u>2.3</u>	5.6	0.4	14.9
	7 - 8	5.6	0.7	3.5	<u>2.2</u>	1.1	13.1
High school**		0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	<u>1.0</u>	1.6
All schools		44.1	15.1	18.7	18.8	3.3	100.0

*The percentages underscored are for the five kinds of identical-type movement. All other percentages represent the amounts of true inter-type movement.

**Includes a comparatively small percentage of movement to, and a still smaller percentage of movement from, supervisory-administrative positions in eight- and twelve-grade school systems.

Table 17 may be read horizontally to note the direction of movement. For example, teachers who move from and who take positions in one-room schools account for 31.8 per cent of all inter-type movement. Teachers who move from one-room

schools to positions in the graded-elementary and high schools account for 7.7 per cent through 0.7 per cent of all inter-type movement. And the total movement with its source in the one-room school amounts to 56.9 per cent of all movement inter-type in nature, as indicated in the column headed "All schools."

A vertical reading shows the per cent contributions of each of the five different types, and of all types, to a particular type. For example, 44.1 per cent of all movement inter-type in nature ends in the one-room school. Of this amount, one-room schools contribute 31.8 per cent; graded schools and high schools, 3.5 per cent through 0.3 per cent.

A diagonal reading of the percentages underscored shows the relation of each of the five identical-type elements of movement to all teacher movement inter-type in nature. Their sum, 40.2 per cent, may be said to constitute school-to-school movement, in the same school district, for all types of teachers combined, rather than true inter-type movement. The movement of teachers from one-room schools to positions in other one-room schools in the same school district accounts for 31.8 of the 40.2 per cent - more than three-fourths; identical-type movement by the three graded-school types combined, 7.4 of the 40.2 per cent. For high-school teachers, identical-type movement is negligible in amount.

These data indicate that the amount of teacher movement intra-type in nature varies widely with type for the

three common rural teacher types - one-room-school, graded-school, and high-school. Within the graded school, however, the variation among types is not so marked. The extent of the opportunity for intra-type movement presented to each of the several teacher types is doubtless the major determining factor in variation with teacher type. For teachers of one-room schools, the opportunity surely is greatest; for teachers in graded schools, very much less, and for high-school teachers, least. While the average rural school district in Pennsylvania has a number of one-room schools, it is fortunate to have a single graded school, and very fortunate to have its own high school.

A comparison of the amounts of identical-type movement for teacher types as of 1923-24 and for actual teacher types at the time of movement is now in order. The manner of computing the amounts of identical-type movement for the assumed types was discussed on p. 54; the data of Table 17 are used to compute the amounts for the actual types. For example, actual teachers of one-room schools made 56.9 per cent of all position changes inter-type in nature over the six-year span. The proportion of these which were identical-type in nature is the ratio of 31.8 per cent to 56.9 per cent, or 55.8 per cent. For the teacher of the one-room school as of 1923-24, the comparable amount was shown to be 49.7 per cent. For the other teacher types, actual-type amounts and assumed-type amounts are, respectively: Grades 1-3, 21.5 and 24.9; grades 4-6, 15.4 and 20.3; grades 7-8, 16.8 and 21.8;

high school, 62.5 and 60.7.

Other noteworthy facts of true inter-type movement in Table 17 are these: The one-room-school type ranks first as a contributor to each of the graded-school types, and second, as a contributor to the high-school type; the upper-grades type ranks first as a contributor to two of the types, to the one-room school, and to the high school. These effects of inter-type movement may be noted by inspecting the percentages in the vertical column for each of the types. In inter-type movement the one-room school nets a distinct loss while all other types gain. The latter fact may be noted by comparing the percentage in the line "All schools" with the percentage in the column "All schools" for each of the several types.

High-school teachers constitute a class apart with respect to true inter-type mobility. Only those few members of the original high-school personnel who take positions in the one-room, or in the graded schools are responsible for such movement, numbering in all only 11 changes. But in determining the annual rate of mobility for all types the entire high-school complement for the six years, numbering 1137 teachers, was counted. Deducting both numbers employed, 1137, and changes made by them, 11, from the basic totals for all types in Table 16 a more truly representative annual rate of 17.1 for all teachers is obtained. After correcting this new rate for the large element of identical-type movement, 40.2 per cent, which it includes, the annual rate of true

inter-type mobility for all types becomes 10.2 (17.1 minus 40.2 per cent of 17.1).

Withdrawal from, and return to the profession, by teacher types - Since the several teacher types are compared in terms of their annual rates of withdrawal from and reentrance to the profession, as part of the discussion of movement among school districts beginning p. 32, there remains for consideration here but one phase of the outward-inward movement. Stated in question form, this phase is, What proportions of the total movement in each direction are identified with each of the teacher types? The answer may be found in the data of Table 18.

Table 18 - A withdrawal - reentrance comparison of the teacher types, assumed and actual, with the distribution of the original teacher sample, in percentages of totals

Distribution of		One-room school	Graded school, grades			High school*
			1-3	4-6	7-8	
2118 teachers, 1923-24		43.7	17.9	13.2	14.2	11.0
1042 withdrawals by teacher type	Assumed	54.3	12.9	11.2	11.1	10.5
	Actual	47.7	14.5	13.8	13.2	10.8
433 reentries by teacher type	Assumed	57.2	11.8	9.5	11.5	9.9
	Actual	41.8	16.2	14.1	15.0	12.9

*Includes supervisory-administrative officials.

Comparable items in Table 18 are in approximate agreement. If the several teacher types are ranked in order,

from highest to lowest percentages of original personnel, the ranking reads from the left of the table towards the right, with the serial order broken only by the interchanging of the upper two graded-school types. Actual type reentries occur in this same proportional order, but reentries by assumed types are least in number for the grades 4-6 type, and fourth in rank for the high-school type. Withdrawals by assumed, and by actual type, are in complete rank-order agreement with each other. They vary from the original distribution by types, however, in that the serial order from left to right is unbroken. The data of Table 18 are but very rough indices of the relative retentive-attractive powers of the several types, as compared with those discussed beginning p. 32. It is doubtful if they should be taken even as rough indices in the absence of definite knowledge about the relative opportunity offered for reentry into the various types.

Effects of inter-type movement on teacher status by types - Tables 19-21 show how those portions of the original personnel of each type, as of 1923-24, credited to the profession in each subsequent year of the study, tend to become distributed among the other teacher types. The facts of these tables serve also to make the data of Table 17 more meaningful and vice versa. Note should be taken, however, that there is not absolute correlation between the data of Table 17 and the data of the present table series.

Table 19 - Type-of-teacher status of teachers of the graded-elementary-school types, expressed in percentages of their numbers remaining in the profession, by years

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Number, and type-of-teacher status, of teachers		School year					
			1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Graded school, grades 1-3 379 teachers	Number of teachers employed		349	331	316	315	311	296
	Percent- age of the type that taught in the	One-room school	3.7	6.0	7.6	4.8	6.1	5.1
		Graded sch. grades 1-3	87.7	81.6	77.8	79.1	77.2	75.7
		Graded sch. grades 4-6	6.9	9.7	11.1	11.7	10.9	12.1
		Graded sch. grades 7-8	1.7	2.7	3.2	4.1	5.2	6.4
		High school*	-	-	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.7
Graded school, grades 4-6 279 teachers	Number of teachers employed		248	236	216	214	212	203
	Percent- age of the type that taught in the	One-room school	4.0	6.4	6.0	7.0	10.4	8.9
		Graded sch. grades 1-3	6.5	10.2	9.7	10.7	12.3	14.3
		Graded sch. grades 4-6	83.9	72.9	71.8	65.4	61.8	58.6
		Graded sch. grades 7-8	5.6	9.7	11.6	15.0	14.1	16.7
		High school*	-	0.8	0.9	1.9	1.4	1.5
Graded school, grades 7-8 301 teachers	Number of teachers employed		270	245	247	238	235	236
	Percent- age of the type that taught in the	One-room school	8.9	10.6	11.7	12.6	11.9	11.9
		Graded sch. grades 1-3	1.1	1.2	3.2	2.1	1.3	2.5
		Graded sch. grades 4-6	6.3	6.9	7.7	10.1	10.2	11.0
		Graded sch. grades 7-8	81.9	78.0	73.7	71.4	70.6	67.0
		High school*	1.8	3.3	3.7	3.8	6.0	7.6

*Includes supervisory-administrative officials. Grades 1-3 type had one of these in 1927-28; grades 4-6 type, two in each of the last three years. In the upper-grades type the numbers ranged from two in 1924-25 to seven in 1929-30. The ratio of the total number of these officials to the total number of high-school teachers, for the last type, is 3 to 5.

Table 20 - Type-of-teacher status of teachers of one-room, graded-elementary, and high schools, expressed in percentages of their numbers remaining in the profession, by years

Type of teacher, 1923-24	Number, and type-of-teacher status, of teachers		School year					
			1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
One-room school, — 927 teachers	Number of teachers employed		774	684	647	629	615	609
	Percent-age of the type that taught in the	One-room school	82.7	73.3	65.9	58.0	55.1	56.5
		Graded sch. grades 1-3	5.9	9.2	9.4	12.2	11.7	10.7
		Graded sch. grades 4-6	5.7	8.1	10.8	11.3	12.5	12.3
		Graded sch. grades 7-8	4.8	8.1	12.2	15.6	17.1	17.1
		High school***	0.9	1.3	1.7	2.9	3.6	3.4
Graded school, — 959* teachers	Number of teachers employed		867	812	779	767	758	735
	Percent-age of the type that taught in the	One-room school	5.4	7.5	8.5	7.9	9.1	8.3
		Graded sch. grades 1-3	37.5	36.6	35.3	36.1	35.5	35.3
		Graded sch. grades 4-6	28.7	27.2	26.8	26.2	24.9	24.6
		Graded sch. grades 7-8	27.8	27.5	27.9	28.0	28.0	28.7
		High school***	0.6	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.5	3.1
High school, — 232** teachers	Number of teachers employed		199	187	176	170	173	166
	Percent-age of the type that taught in the	One-room and graded schools, grades 1-6	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.8	0.6	1.2
		Graded sch. grades 7-8	0.5	1.6	1.1	1.2	2.9	3.0
		High school	85.9	84.5	83.0	82.3	80.3	77.1
		Supervisory-administ've positions	12.6	12.8	14.8	14.7	16.2	18.7

*The 1923-24 per cent distribution of these was: Grades 1-3, 39.5; 4-6, 29.1; 7-8, 31.4

**The 1923-24 per cent distribution of these was: Teachers, 89.2; supervisory-administrative officials, 10.8.

***Includes supervisory-administrative officials.

For example, since Table 17 shows that among the three graded-school types, teachers of grades 7-8 have the greatest difference in the percentages of all movement to and from the type (computed by subtracting the percentages in column "All schools" from corresponding type percentages in the line "All schools"), a possible hasty conclusion that teachers of this type retain original type-status best could be made.

Table 21 - Type-of-teacher status of teachers of the all-schools type, expressed in percentages of their numbers remaining in the profession, by years

Number, and type-of-teacher status, of teacher		School year						
		1923 -24	1924 -25	1925 -26	1926 -27	1927 -28	1928 -29	1929 -30
Number of teachers employed		2118	1840	1683	1602	1566	1546	1510
Percent- age of all teachers that taught in	One-room schools	43.7	37.4	33.4	30.7	27.2	26.4	26.9
	Graded schools, grades 1-3	17.9	20.2	21.4	21.0	22.7	22.1	21.5
	Graded schools, grades 4-6	13.2	15.9	16.5	17.5	17.4	17.2	16.9
	Graded schools, grades 7-8	14.2	15.2	16.7	18.6	20.1	20.8	21.2
	High schools	9.8	9.8	10.3	10.3	10.5	11.1	10.7
	Supervisory- administrative positions	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.8

As a matter of fact the upper-grades type does maintain type through seven years 8.4 per cent points better (67.0 per cent compared with 58.6 per cent) than the middle-grades type but is in turn bettered by the primary-grades type by 8.7 per cent points (75.7 per cent compared with 67.0 per cent) as shown in

Table 19, last column. The data of the earlier table and the data of Table 19 could then be said to be contradictory. The data of Table 17 are derived, however, from a combination of all teacher types and comparable data in the present table series are contained in Table 21. Here agreement obtains throughout.

The only per cent loss of type (determined by comparing the percentages for 1923-24 with those for 1929-30, (Table 21) is seen to be incurred by teachers of the one-room school; all other types gain in inter-type movement. The supervisory-administrative type shows the greatest relative gain but the number of individuals is so few as to class this type apart. The three graded-school types rank in reverse order both in absolute and in relative gains in type.

Summary - Certain aspects of inter-type movement are summarized on pages 45 and 46. Other significant elements of inter-type movement are:

1. The most stable teacher, inter-type mobility the criterion, is the primary-grades type with an annual mobility rate for the six-year period of 10.2; the most mobile, the teacher of the one-room school with an annual rate of 23.5, twice that of the graded-school type (Tables 15 and 16).

2. Between 15 and 16 of every hundred rural teachers change type yearly (Table 16).

3. Intra-, or identical-type, mobility varies in amount with type, being greatest for the teacher of

the one-room school, and least for the upper-grades type. More than one-half of all inter-type position changes of the former is intra-type in nature; of the latter, one-sixth. (The high school type is here omitted from comparison.) (Table 17)

4. The annual rate of inter-type movement, the high school type excluded, is 17.1. Intra-type position changes account for 40.2 per cent of this rate (Discussion, pp. 59-60).

5. Teachers of one-room schools account for 56.9 per cent of all movement inter-type in nature (Table 17).

6. The one-room-school type ranks first as a contributor to each graded-school type and second to the upper-grades type as a contributor to the high-school type (Table 17).

7. Inter-type movement nets a per cent loss to the one-room-school type; per cent gains to all other types (Table 21).

By Subject Fields

Nature and effects of the movement - For the purposes of this research it is assumed that changes in position caused by a change in the subject, or subjects taught, are experienced only by teachers in high schools. For the one-room, and the graded-elementary schools, the subjects to be taught are very definitely specified in the Pennsylvania School Laws.⁵

The extent to which teachers of high-school subjects tend to move by subject fields is shown in Table 22.

Table 22 - Amount and rate of movement by high-school teachers, through subject fields by years

Basis and indices of mobility	Movement by years						Totals
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	
Number of teachers employed	219	193	185	178	177	182	1134*
Number of position changes	30	27	22	23	25	20	147
Percentage of mobility	13.7	14.0	11.9	12.9	14.1	11.0	13.0**

*Includes 98 school terms served by teachers originally of the one-room-school, and the graded-school types, who within the seven-year span became high-school teachers.

The total number does not include supervisory-administrative officials who had no teaching responsibilities.

**Annual rate for the six-year period.

⁵Pennsylvania. The School Law, 1929, Section 1607.

The most meaningful element in the table is the annual rate of mobility for the six-year period, 13.0 per cent. It is somewhat higher than the annual rates of mobility by high-school teachers among school districts, and from the profession, noted in Tables 6 and 10, respectively. It indicates that one teacher makes a change in subject fields yearly to every seven who maintain subject status.

The annual rate of mobility is the only index of the nature of the movement by subject fields derived from this research that may be presented with scientific certainty. The fact that 54 different subject categories are recorded, even after certain combinations are made, makes this apparent. In other words, one subject category is provided for every four teachers. There are, however, five or more teachers credited to each of 18 subject categories in the first year of the study, as may be noted in Table 23. All other subject combinations are included in "Miscellaneous."

Table 23 shows also the distribution of teachers among the subject categories during the last year of the study, and the distribution of all teachers by subjects for the seven-year period. Each of the latter distributions may be used as a check on the other in comparing either with the original distribution.

For example, teachers of "English, social studies, and mathematics" present a zero in the last year. The numbers in the adjacent columns, headed "1923-24", and "Seven-year period" suggest a gradual passing, however. Again,

Table 23 - Distribution of teachers among the subject fields in the first, and the last years of the study, and over the seven-year period

Subject field, or fields	1923-24		1929-30		Seven-year period	
	Num- ber	Per- cent- age	Num- ber	Per- cent- age	Num- ber	Per- cent- age
English	8	3.7	8	4.7	66	5.1
English and social studies	9	4.1	4	2.3	46	3.5
English, social studies, and mathematics	5	2.3	-	-	12	0.9
English, social studies, mathematics, science, and foreign language	11	5.0	1	0.6	21	1.6
English and mathematics	5	2.3	3	1.7	23	1.8
English and foreign language	11	5.0	10	5.8	84	6.4
Social studies	8	3.7	17	9.9	91	7.0
Social studies, mathematics, and science	12	5.5	6	3.5	44	3.4
Social studies and science	6	2.7	3	1.7	30	2.3
Social studies, science, and foreign language	5	2.3	3	1.7	17	1.3
Social studies, and foreign language	6	2.7	4	2.3	37	2.8
Mathematics	12	5.5	17	9.9	108	8.3
Mathematics and science	26	11.8	13	7.6	143	10.9
Science	11	5.0	14	8.1	99	7.6
Science, and vocational field	6	2.7	1	0.6	25	1.9
Foreign language	5	2.3	5	2.9	35	2.7
Art	5	2.3	7	4.1	30	2.3
Vocational field	20	9.1	17	9.9	109	8.3
Miscellaneous	48	21.9	39	22.6	286	21.9
Totals	219	99.9	172*	99.9	1306**	100.0

* and ** Includes 30, and 128 teachers, respectively, who originally were of the one-room-school, and the graded-school types.

teachers of "Mathematics, and science" seem to have suffered a 50 per cent loss in number by 1929-30, in comparison with 1923-24, but as a matter of fact they maintain status very well as the adjacent columns show.

To determine the subject fields to which movement by high-school teachers nets the greatest relative per cent gains in numbers, the per cent distribution of teachers among subject fields as shown in the column headed "Seven-year period" would seem, therefore, a more reliable measure to compare with the data of column "1923-24" than the per cent distribution as shown in column "1929-30." By applying this measure, movement among subject fields over the seven-year period is found to net teachers of "Social studies" the greatest relative gain in number, 89 per cent (7.0 per cent of column "Seven-year period" minus 3.7 per cent of column "1923-24", divided by 3.7 per cent of column "1923-24"). In like manner, the four subject fields ranking next highest in relative per cent gains in numbers are determined to be "Mathematics," and "Science," each with a gain of 52 per cent, for a rank of 2.5; "English," with a gain of 38 per cent, for a rank as fourth, and "English and foreign language" with a 28 per cent gain for fifth rank.

It is significant that among the five subject fields ranking highest in relative per cent gains in numbers of teachers, the first four are single-subject fields. The other single-subject fields are "Foreign language," ranking sixth in per cent gain in personnel, and "Art," and "Vocational subjects."

The last two subjects maintained status over the seven-year period in a very high degree; the former with no change in per cent distribution and the latter, with a slight loss. At any rate, it is well to remember that they are in a sense in a class apart. They are special subjects requiring of teachers special training and, accordingly, do not admit readily of accessions among teachers. This is not true, at least in practice, of the other single-subject fields.

That losses in the number of teachers in the vocational field through ordinary causes alone do not show in the table is probably because there are replacements for these from a bi-subject field. It is quite usual for a beginning teacher of vocational subjects to teach some other subject, notably science, while serving as assistant to the full-time teacher of vocational subjects. Losses to "Science and vocational subjects" the table shows have actually been incurred over seven years.

In greatest relative per cent losses to personnel, calculated in the same manner as in the case of gains, teachers of five subjects, "English, social studies, mathematics, science, and foreign language" rank first. The reason is quite apparent; so many and unrelated subjects point to an over-loading of teachers, which in later years is corrected. "English, social studies, and mathematics" rank second in per cent losses to personnel; "Social studies, science, and foreign language", third; "Social studies,

mathematics, and science," fourth, and "Science and vocational field," fifth.

There is significance in the fact that all relative per cent losses in teacher numbers in seven years occur among the multi-subject fields, with the single exception of "Vocational field". Social studies are more often a party to losses in personnel than any other subject. Even the combination "Mathematics and science", a hand-glove subject duo, shows a slight, and possibly significant, loss in personnel.

Included under "Miscellaneous" are no fewer than 36 different subject combinations. Some of them deserve mention by way of the unusual. Three times the combination involved six subjects - all but "Vocational subjects;" twice, "Science, foreign language, and art;" twice, "Mathematics, science, foreign language, and art," and four times, "Social studies, mathematics, science, and art." It would seem that exigencies peculiar to the smaller and weaker rural high schools have been productive of these and other unusual combinations of subjects.

"Miscellaneous" subject fields are credited with between one-fifth and one-fourth of the entire high-school teaching personnel in the first year. The percentage of teachers credited to this broad category shows a slight relative gain for the last year but over the seven-year period the initial percentage status is shown to be maintained. Unfortunately the tabular results of the methods used in the

treatment of the raw data throw no light on the question suggested here: Why should the numbers of teachers credited to "Miscellaneous" subjects show no appreciable reduction in the space of seven years? A reasoned probability, however, is that certain of the rural high schools falling within the scope of this study are more likely to present exigencies year after year than certain others. If this be true, then it would follow naturally that over a relatively short span of years the numbers of teachers credited to "Miscellaneous" are likely to approximate a constant.

Summary - Movement among rural high-school teachers in terms of the subjects taught may be characterized thus:

1. The annual rate of mobility among subject fields for the six-year period indicates that 13 out of every 100 high-school teachers in any year teach a subject, or combination of subjects, different from that of the preceding, or of the ensuing year (Table 22).

2. Rates of mobility by years show no trend toward stability in subject fields (Table 22).

3. Teacher movement among subject fields tends to net relative per cent gains in personnel to the single-subject fields. These, in rank order of gains, are: "Social studies;" "Mathematics;" "Science;" "English;" and "Foreign language" (Table 23).

4. Excepting "Vocational subjects," all relative per cent losses in teaching personnel are for multi-

subject fields (Table 23).

5. "Social studies" occurs most frequently as a component of multi-subject fields incurring losses; "English" ranks second in this respect (Table 23).

6. "Miscellaneous" subject fields in 1923-24, including 36 different subject combinations, were taught by 21.9 per cent of all high-school teachers (Table 23).

7. It is probable that the unusual subject combinations included under "Miscellaneous" are a year-after-year characteristic of certain high-school organizations falling within the scope of this research.

By Kinds-of-Position

Nature and effects of the movement - Division VI of the questionnaire used in this research defines seven common kinds of teaching position. Tabulation of this element of the data showed, however, that the numbers credited to certain of these kinds of position are relatively so few as to make their separate treatment of little meaning. Accordingly, the seven kinds of position are for the purposes of this discussion reduced by combination to three.

The concept "Teacher" is, of course, clear. "Teacher-supervisor-principal" embraces teaching, and either, or both, of the other responsibilities, in one position. (Columns 29, 30, and 32 of the questionnaire are included.) No teaching responsibility is associated with the position, "Supervisor-principal." (Columns 27, 28, and 31 of the questionnaire.) Even within these more inclusive latter two categories the numbers of individuals are found to be relatively few. This fact in turn suggests relatively little movement by kinds-of-position.

The data of Table 24 verify this suggestion in a very striking way. The annual rate of mobility for the six-year period, together with the total number of position changes and the total number of teachers employed, from which rate is determined, are shown for each teacher type.

Table 24 - Extent of the movement by the several types of teacher among the three major kinds of position: Teacher, teacher-supervisor-principal, and supervisor-principal

Basis and indices of mobility	One-room school	Graded-elementary school, grades				High school	All schools
		1-3	4-6	7-8	Types combined		
Number of teachers employed	4276	2001	1405	1536	4942	1137	10355
Number of position changes	32	3	6	34	43	51	126
Percentage of mobility*	0.7	0.15	0.4	2.2	0.9	4.5	1.2

* Annual rate for the six-year period

Data for the teacher of the one-room school show some, although very slight, tendency to movement. The rate for this type is seven changes yearly for each 1000 teachers employed. A not improbable reaction to the data for this type may be stated in question form, How can movement of this kind be experienced by teachers of one-room schools? Obviously it cannot be as teachers of one-room schools. It should be remembered, however, that not all those teachers so employed in 1923-24 maintained that status through 1929-30. Table 20 showed the extent to which teachers of one-room schools became diffused among all other types. But, as stated in various parts of this discussion, all movement aspects are discussed in terms of the types of teacher as of 1923-24.

Turning to the graded-school types of teacher, the primary-grades and the intermediate-grades types are seen to

have an even lesser tendency to movement among the several kinds of position. "Once a teacher, always a teacher" is very apt for these types. Practically all movement of this sort in the graded school, negligible as it is, occurs among the upper-grades teachers. The rate with these is 22 changes yearly for each 1000 teachers.

The very much higher rate of mobility for teachers of grades 7-8, as compared with teachers of the primary and of the intermediate grades, explains largely the higher rate for teachers of one-room schools, as compared with the same types. The one-room school contributes more heavily to the personnel of the upper-grades type than to either of the other two graded-school types of teacher (Table 20).

Tradition, as it influences or characterizes the rural graded school, points to a higher rate of movement for teachers of grades 7-8 among the several kinds of teaching position. It is relatively rare for a teacher of the lower two types to be head-teacher or principal of a graded school. Teachers of the upper grades, on the other hand, are probably as frequently principals by prerogative as by qualification.

Any considerable movement by kinds-of-position is naturally to be expected of the high-school type of teacher. But even this type shows no special tendency with a rate of but 45 changes for each 1000 teachers employed. The rate is just twice the rate for teachers of the upper-grades. Opportunity for movement presented to the high-school type

probably is more than twice that presented to the upper-grades type. Ordinarily rural graded-elementary schools in Pennsylvania are part of a complete 12-grade public-school system, administered by a high-school principal, or a supervising-principal of all schools having high-school teaching duties also. The graded school in such case may or may not have a principal, so designated.

The original tabulation sheets show that with teachers of the one-room school, and the graded-school types, withdrawals and reentries are practically always as "Teachers." But with the high-school type, withdrawal and reentrance data show four "Teachers" withdrawing to one for the two more responsible positions combined. Reentries, although numbering only about 40 per cent of the withdrawals, are at the rate of two "Teachers" to one for the other two position types combined. The total number involved in this two-way movement is 155 individuals.

To show the effects of mobility within the profession and the withdrawal - reentrance aspects of mobility by kinds-of-position, Tables 25 and 26 are presented. How all teachers are distributed among the three kinds of position in 1923-24 is shown in the former; how the full teaching complement over the seven-year period is distributed, in the latter.

The former table shows that in the graded-elementary schools represented in this research there are only 35 individuals having responsibilities in addition to teaching in

Table 25 - Kind-of-position distribution of the original (1923-24) personnel among the several types of schools, expressed in numbers and their percentages

Kind of school	Position status in 1923-24					
	Teacher		Teacher-supervisor-principal		Supervisor-principal	
	Num-ber	Percent-age	Num-ber	Percent-age	Num-ber	Percent-age
One-room	927	100.0	0	0	0	0
Graded-elementary	925	96.5	34*	3.5	0	0
High	159	68.5	48	20.7	25	10.8
All schools	2011	94.9	82	3.9	25	1.2

*Thirty-three of these were found working with grades 7-8; the other, with the intermediate grades, 4-6.

Table 26 - School terms served in the three kinds of positions over the seven-year period according to kind of school

Kind of school	School terms served from 1923-24 to 1929-30 as					
	Teacher		Teacher-supervisor-principal		Supervisor-principal	
	Num-ber	Percent-age	Num-ber	Percent-age	Num-ber	Percent-age
One-room	4790	98.0	86	1.8	9	0.2
Graded-elementary	5406	95.3	229*	4.0	42**	0.7
High	737	56.5	353	27.1	213	16.4
All schools	10933	92.1	668	5.7	264	2.2

*Grades 7-8 were credited with 218.

**Twenty-seven were credited to grades 7-8.

each 1000 employed. Further, these few are found almost invariably to be identified with grades 7-8. In the high school the status, naturally, is vastly different. Here personnel is found in the rough proportion of 13 "Teachers" to four of "Teacher-supervisor-principal" to two of "Supervisor-principal." In all rural schools an approximate proportion of personnel is 80 "Teachers" to four and one, respectively, of the other two kinds of position.

Movement by kinds-of-position through six years is seen in Table 26 to have removed two of each 100 teachers of the one-room school type from the status of "Teacher." (It is to be remembered here that the original teacher-type categories continue in use for classification purposes. An assumption, then, that the other 98 teachers continue to fill positions in one-room schools is very inaccurate, as shown in the discussion of movement by teacher-types.)

In the seven-year span the percentage of graded-school teachers credited to the second kind of position does not change materially but the ranks of "Supervisor-principal" have been invaded slightly. For this teacher type, the numbers credited to the upper-grades type (foot-notes to Table 26) are further support of the statement made previously, that principals of graded schools are commonly upper-grades teachers. Some of these upper-grades teachers are invested with such responsibilities, however, after having taken high-school positions. And by the same token, members of the lower two graded-school teacher types become

principals after moving to the upper-grades, or high-school levels.

In the high school the seven-year position status shows the more responsible positions to have made distinct gains. Here the approximate proportion has changed to 11 "Teachers" to five and three, respectively, of the other two kinds of position. Rural teachers, or teachers in all schools, are seen after a seven-year service to be distributed in a slightly changed proportion for the three kinds of position, of 83 to five to two. A comparison of this with the original proportion serves further to emphasize the fact that, in comparison with the other large aspects of teacher movement, and per se, this aspect of teacher movement is slight.

Summary - In recapitulation, this research indicates:

1. High-school teachers only tend to move in any appreciable way among positions having varying degrees of responsibility, ranging from teaching through supervising and administering. With this group the annual rate of mobility for the six-year period is 4.5 (Table 24).

2. The tendency of each of the other teacher types to stability in a kind of position brings the annual rate of mobility for the rural teacher to the low percentage of 1.2 (Table 24).

3. The data imply that supervisory and

administrative responsibilities rest almost wholly with teachers of high schools. As teachers of other types, notably teachers of the upper grades and of the one-room school, attain the high-school level, small percentages of these attain also to wider responsibilities.

4. Except for the high-school type withdrawal from and reentrance to the profession are as "Teacher." The tendency among the high-school type withdrawn is to reenter to a position of greater responsibility.

5. The tendency to this aspect of movement by the high-school type of teacher raises the original ratio of 13 "Teachers" to six of the other two kinds of position, combined, to a ratio, after seven years, of 11 to eight, respectively.

6. Compared with other aspects of teacher movement, and per se, this kind of movement is slight.

Summary Movement Tendencies

The foregoing discussion is designed to present each of the several broad aspects of teacher movement as it characterizes specific teacher types. In the present discussion, these broad aspects of movement are consolidated into what may be termed the summary movement tendencies of rural teachers. Table 27 is helpful in grasping the significance of movement in the large.

Table 27 - A comparison of the common rural teacher types, and of all types combined, by total movement tendencies expressed in annual rates* of mobility for the six-year period

Kind of teacher movement	Type of teacher			
	One-room school	Graded school	High school	All schools
By school districts	14.2	7.5	9.1	10.4
By teacher types	23.5	11.6	2.5	15.5
By subject fields	-	-	13.0	1.4
By kinds of position	0.7	0.9	4.5	1.2
Within the profession	38.4	20.0	29.1	28.6
From the profession	13.2	7.4	9.6	10.1
All movement	51.7	27.4	38.6	38.7

*All rates are expressed as true arithmetic means. Accordingly, in a few instances, the rates deviate by a tenth of one per cent from the rates obtained by addition of specific rates.

One element of movement previously discussed, that of reentrance to the profession, is here purposely omitted. Reentrance to the profession is not teacher movement in the same sense as the other elements of movement are teacher movement. Further, while annual rates for each of the other elements of movement are computed from the same basic number of teachers, a different base is needed for determining the same index for reentrance.

Rural school teacher movement in its total aspect, as shown in the data of Table 27, may be summarized thus:

1. The graded-school type of teacher is the most stable type, aspects of movement considered singly or collectively. The high-school type has the lowest (2.5) annual rate for movement by teacher types, but movement by subject fields is the aspect of movement by high-school teachers which admits of most valid comparison with mobility by teacher types for types below the high-school level. While teachers of the one-room school have a lower rate (0.7) for movement by kinds of position, there is no practical difference between this rate and that (0.9) of the graded-school type for the same aspect of movement.

2. Teachers of the one-room school, as a type, are the most mobile, movement aspects taken singly, or collectively.

3. Except for movement by kinds of position, rates of mobility for high school teachers, aspect for

aspect and whole for whole, are closely comparable with those for all types, or for the rural teacher. Movement by subject fields by high-school teachers should be compared with movement by teacher types for all teachers.

4. All movement the criterion, the three common teacher types move in the ratio of four teachers of the one-room school to two of the graded school to three of the high school. The annual rates of all movement by the three types are respectively 51.7, 27.4, and 38.6. Stated differently, twelve of every 31 rural teachers move annually, nine within the profession and three from the profession.

5. All movement the criterion, one of every two teachers of the one-room-school type move annually, and three of every eleven of the graded-school type, and three of every eight of the high-school type, move annually.

CHAPTER IV

CAUSES OF THE MOVEMENT

In presenting the causal aspect of teacher movement, the same general topical order of the preceding chapter is followed. There is this deviation, however: Reasons for teacher withdrawal are presented as a last topic rather than as a part of each of the four major aspects of movement.

The present discussion, too, must reckon with a factor not insistent in the preceding, the multi-aspect movement. By a movement multi-aspect in nature is meant a position change involving two or more identifying elements. For example, a teacher in a single move may change employing school district, may become a different type of teacher, and may teach different subjects.

These position changes multi-aspect in nature become a factor in this chapter because no opportunity was given the respondents to indicate which aspect of a bi- or a tri-aspect position change was dominant with reference to the reasons recorded. The only safe procedure for the investigator in such instances was to record the reason, or reasons, indicated as applying with equal importance to each of the several elements of change involved in the one movement.

Clearly, then, in attempting to establish the relative importance of reasons as they contribute to each of the several aspects of teacher movement, the problem of how to weight

reasons was presented. For example, a teacher moved from one fourth-class school district to another in order "To live at home." Another made the same sort of school-district move and in addition became a teacher of grades 1-3 instead of the one-room school - a bi-aspect move - for the same reason. And a third teacher for the identical reason made a position change involving both elements of change made by the second teacher, and, in addition, became a graded-school principal - a tri-aspect move.

The relative values of "To live at home" as a cause of movement from one fourth-class school district to a different one are in the three cases "1", " $1/2$ ", and " $1/3$ ", respectively. These values are arrived at by dividing "1", the value assigned to "To live at home," by one, one-half, or one-third, respectively, according to the number of position elements involved in the change. The relative significance of reasons recorded for a particular kind of movement is, then, in this research, determined by giving each reason for a single-aspect movement a value of "6"; for a double-aspect movement, a value of "3", and for a triple-aspect movement, a value of "2". The latter assignments of value are a least-common-multiple expression of the former.

Admittedly, the validity of this procedure may be questioned on the grounds that in any position change having more than one aspect, the reason indicated is dominant for a particular aspect of the change. In a study involving a

relatively small personnel and a comparatively small number of position changes, the question would apply. In this, however, with four thousand position changes recorded, any dominance so conceived would probably tend to disappear.

It is of interest here to note that the 4002 position changes (changes in all teacher identifying elements counted) are the result of 3372 actual teacher moves (each multi-aspect movement counted as one). For the latter number of position changes, numbers of reasons are recorded as follows:

No reason	-	165 changes,	or	4.9 per cent;
1 reason	-	2523 changes,	or	74.8 per cent;
2 reasons	-	413 changes,	or	12.3 per cent;
3 reasons	-	176 changes,	or	5.2 per cent, and
4, or more, reasons	-	95 changes,	or	2.8 per cent.

For these 3372 actual teacher moves a total of 4299 actual reasons are recorded. Applying the reasons given to each aspect of position changes multi-aspect in nature, the gross number of reasons used in interpreting the data becomes 7637. In like manner, the gross number of position changes for which reasons are not recorded becomes 216. Movement from the profession accounts for about 40 per cent of the gross number of reasons, leaving 4511 reasons upon which to generalize movement within the profession.

While the data of this research showing the nature

of teacher movement are highly objective in character, the causal data, unfortunately, are rather highly subjective. It should be remembered, however, that this research covers a period of seven years; That reasons were submitted to respondents in the questionnaire, and that reasons given by teachers for position changes, irrespective of the time factor, are highly subjective.

By School Districts

Reasons actuating teacher movement among school districts should be studied with cognizance of classes of school districts as outlined in the first section of this research. School districts of the third class, as distinguished from those of the fourth class, have gross populations which, among the larger, may be six times as great as those of the larger fourth-class districts. Gross population is the measurable characteristic of districts used to determine legal class.

The two classes of districts have other distinguishing characteristics with varying degrees of mensurability. Ordinarily, the district of the third class has a larger school population and greater taxable wealth, and is more completely organized for educational and other social ends. Its professional education group, numbering more, is likely to have staff organization, and has the economic advantage of a mandated salary schedule. These characteristics, to mention but a few, are ordinarily associated with the urban unit for school administration. On the other hand, the fourth-class district, as a class, is distinctly rural.

Movement from districts of the fourth class to those of the third class may in general, therefore, be said to be movement from rural to urban districts. Actuating this movement should be certain dominant reasons, differing, probably, from those causing movement in the reverse direction.

From the causal viewpoint there is also movement among districts of the same class. Here a different set of reasons would be expected to apply. There is suggested, therefore, a presentation of causes for each of these three large aspects of movement by school districts.

Intra-class movement - The most significant twelve reasons causing teacher movement among school districts of the same class are presented in Table 28. Of the 938 position changes of this character, only seven are from third- to third-class school districts. No other element of change is involved in 476 of these; 430 are parts of double-aspect changes; 32, of triple-aspect changes. Fifty-two of these position changes are not accompanied with designations of reasons; 886 are made for 1211 gross reasons.

Significance of reasons is shown by "Rank" and "Percentage." It is at once apparent (in Table 28) that the former index is dependent upon the latter. The "Percentage" significance of a reason is obtained by applying the weighting factors discussed on p. 87. For example, "To live at home," as a cause of movement among school districts of the same class, has a per cent significance of 22.6 for "All types" of teachers. The index, 22.6, is the ratio of the sum obtained by weighting "To live at home," according as it is a reason for movement single-, double-, or triple-aspect in nature, to the sum of all reasons weighted in like manner,

Table 28 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher movement, by types, among school districts of the same class

Reasons assigned for movement to a different school district of the same class	Type of teacher, 1923-24							
	All types		One-room school		Graded school		High school	
	Signifi- cance of reason		Signifi- cance of reason		Signifi- cance of reason		Signifi- cance of reason	
	Rank	Per- cent- age	Rank	Per- cent- age	Rank	Per- cent- age	Rank	Per- cent- age
To live at home	1	22.6	1	23.8	2	22.3	2	14.8
An increase in salary	2	20.2	2	17.2	1	22.8	1	31.5
Failed to be re-elected	3	11.2	3	10.8	4	11.2	3	12.7
A longer school term	4	8.8	5	7.7	3	12.3	6½	3.3
To teach in a graded school	5	6.0	4	9.2	12½	1.7	-	-
To teach pre-ferred grade(s)	6	5.3	6	6.6	6	4.6	-	-
To teach fewer pupils	7	4.7	7	4.8	5	5.4	12	1.7
Desired change	8	3.6	8	4.1	11	1.9	4	7.2
To teach under regular supervision	9	2.5	10½*	2.2	7	3.5	13½	1.1
Tardy re-election of teachers	10½	2.4	9	2.7	12½	1.7	8½	3.1
Salary increases guaranteed	10½	2.4	12	2.1	8	2.9	11	2.6
To teach pre-ferred subject(s)	12	2.3	13	1.5	9	2.6	5	6.7
All other	-	8.0	-	7.3	-	7.1*	-	15.3***

*Rank shared with "Board closed school last taught."

**Includes as tenth ranking reason, "Board closed school last taught."

***Includes these ranking reasons: 6½, "To become a principal" (3.3); 8½, "Summer study made change possible" (3.1), and 10, "To become a supervisor" (2.7).

multiplied by one hundred.¹ Rankings determined in this way may, or may not, coincide with rankings resulting from a simple count of unweighted reasons, or rank-order frequency distributions of reasons.

While the reason, "To live at home," takes first rank as a cause of intra-class school-district movement for teachers of the one-room school, and for all teachers, it is probable that the second ranking reason for these types, "An increase in salary," is in reality the most important. "To live at home" implies ordinarily a distinct economic advantage to the teacher. "To live at home" implies also certain other elements not economic but it is quite improbable that their combined weight would be comparable with the weight of "An increase in salary" in the instance of the teacher of the one-room school. With this type the spread between the first two ranking reasons is most pronounced, to the advantage of "To live at home."

"A longer school term," a reason more definitely economic in its implications, ranks relatively high irrespective of teacher type. "Salary increases guaranteed" is also a ranking reason, although relatively low. A reasonably safe conclusion, then, is that reasons of economy are most powerful in causing rural teachers to make position changes among school districts of the same class.

¹The "Percentage" significance of a reason is determined in this same manner for, and has the same meaning in, all subsequent tables presenting causal aspects of teacher movement.

The residual causal elements in "To live at home," after the economic element has been removed, are probably of sufficient weight for all teachers, and for each type except high-school teachers, to grant this reason second rank. "Failed to be reelected" is the reason ranking third in importance. Its "Percentage" significance is fairly consistent by teacher types, and compared with all reasons ranked, the most consistent. Its significance may be expressed in this way: One of every nine rural teachers who change positions to school districts of the same class fails to be reelected.

There is close agreement between the ranking of reasons for teachers of the one-room school, and for all teachers. This implies that the reasons given by the former teacher type were more influential in determining reason ranking for the rural teacher than either of the other two common types.

Actual fourth, and fifth ranking reasons for intra-class district movement by high school teachers are, respectively, "Desired change," and "To teach preferred subjects." The latter is clear, both in meaning and in significance. "Desired change," however, does not appear in the questionnaire. In this reason are included many varied expressions of this meaning which respondents had written in the spaces provided.

Movement from fourth- to third-class school districts - The data of Table 29, showing the important causes of movement from fourth to higher types of school districts, are based upon 106 position changes only. There is a tendency for this kind of movement to be multi-causal in nature, as many as 286 reasons being recorded. For only three of these position changes are no reasons given.

Table 29 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher movement from fourth- to third-class school districts

Reasons assigned for movement from fourth- to third-class school districts	Significance of reason	
	Rank	Percentage
An increase in salary	1	23.8
A longer school term	2	19.7
Salary increases guaranteed	3	14.8
To teach under regular supervision	4	8.2
To teach preferred subjects	5	6.4
To teach in a graded school	6	6.3
To live at home	7	5.6
To teach preferred grades	8	3.7
Summer study made change possible	9	2.6
Failed to be reelected	10	2.4
To teach fewer pupils	11	2.3
To become a principal	12	1.7
All other	-	2.5

For this manner of movement rankings of reasons by the common teacher types are omitted because of the relatively low number of position changes recorded for each type. The ranking of reasons for all types combined, however, shows the most significant cause of movement to be overwhelmingly economic. The three reasons most definitely economic rank in the first three places with a combined percentage significance of nearly 60.

For the rural teacher it may be stated that second, third, and fourth causes in importance are: "To teach under regular supervision;" "To teach preferred subjects," and "To teach in a graded school." None of these, however, has a weight in any sense comparable with that of the economic cause. "To live at home" for this kind of movement may be ranked fifth as a cause, although it ranks seventh as a recorded reason.

Movement from third- to fourth-class school districts - This kind of teacher movement by school districts accounts for only 38 position changes, a number too few from which to derive causal factors. Reasons, treated as in the preceding types of movement, show, however, that "Failed to be reelected" is the first most important cause; "To live at home," the second, and "An increase in salary," the third.

Summary - The data of this research point to certain causes as most influential in rural teacher movement among school districts. These causes vary according to change in or maintenance of class-of-school-district status for the teacher.

In the order of their importance, the significant causes of teacher movement among school districts of the same class are these:

1. The economic cause, as indicated by salary increase, by a longer school term, by a promised salary increment, and by living at home.
2. The opportunity to live at home, and
3. Failure to be reelected in the district last served.

Teacher movement from fourth-class school districts to third is influenced by these factors, in order of importance:

1. The economic, expressed in salary increase, in the longer term of employment, and in the salary schedule;
2. A desire to be employed in a district providing for regular supervision, and
3. A desire to teach preferred subjects, or to teach a graded school. These two factors are practically of the same weight as causes of this manner of movement.

By Teacher Types

In thinking of the causal aspect of teacher movement by types, certain logical categories are suggested for the presentation of causes. Movement involving no change in teacher type; changes from the one-room school type to the graded-school type; changes converse to the latter, and inter-type position changes among teachers of the graded-elementary school. Each of these kinds of movement is distinctive and, accordingly, would be expected to be accompanied by certain characteristic causal factors. The causes of movement by teacher types are discussed, then, in this section under the categories noted.

There are three additional kinds of movement by teacher types revealed in this research which, combined, total but 64 position changes. These are: Teacher movement from the one-room, and the graded schools to high schools; a reverse movement, and changes in the number of grades supervised and administered. Clearly, causes for these movements by teacher types cannot safely be established upon bases of so few changes.

Intra-type movement - As explained in an earlier section in discussing the nature aspect of intra-type movement, no change in the employing school district is here involved. Movement of this sort means that a teacher moves to an identical position in a different school in the same

district. Four specific movements are possible: From a one-room school to a one-room school, and from and to each of the three graded-school types - the primary, the intermediate, and the upper grades.

A total of 627 position changes intra-type in nature are recorded, and the bulk of these, 511, are the result of a ready tendency to this manner of movement by teachers of the one-room school. All of these position changes chance to be single-aspect in nature. Reasons are given for all but 19.

That most instances of intra-type movement are involuntary with the teacher is very evident in the data of Table 30. Here it is seen that "Board moved me to another position" is the first ranking reason with a weight of 55.1, the highest "Percentage" significance attached to any reason recorded in this research. It should be noted that in a very few instances movement by the "board" means by the chief school officer for the district to whom a progressive school board has delegated teacher-transfer and other responsibilities.

Only one other cause of movement intra-type in nature has any measure of significance. This grows out of the desire of teachers to have teaching employment proximate to their homes. Movement for this reason is, of course, voluntary with the teacher.

Table 30 - The relative significance of reasons
for rural teacher movement intra-type in
nature

Reasons assigned for intra-type movement	Significance of reason	
	Rank	Percentage
Board moved me to another position	1	55.1
To live at home	2	18.5
To teach fewer pupils	3	5.3
An increase in salary	4	4.9
Failed to be reelected	5	4.6
All other	-	11.6

Movement from the one-room school to the graded-elementary school - Reasons, and their relative significance, for movement by teachers of the one-room school to positions among the three graded-school types are shown in Table 31. Position changes of this kind number 392, and are made rather evenly among the graded-school types. The primary grades receive the least number of teachers from the one-room school; the upper grades, the greatest number. Only five of the changes are made without reasons.

Table 31 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher movement from the one-room school to the graded school

Reasons assigned for movement from the one-room school to the graded school	Significance of reason	
	Rank	Percentage
To teach in a graded school	1	30.2
To teach preferred grades	2	14.8
An increase in salary	3	10.7
Board moved me to another position	4	9.8
To live at home	5	8.3
A longer school term	6	6.7
Board closed school last taught	7	4.2
All other	-	15.3

"To teach in a graded school" ranks first as a reason for this movement. Its "Percentage" significance, 30.2, stamps it as a markedly significant cause. It has double the weight of the second ranking reason, "To teach preferred grades." "An increase in salary" and "Board moved me to another position" follow in order, in significance.

Movement from the graded-elementary school to the one-room school - This manner of teacher movement, converse of the preceding, totals 194 position changes, about half the number of its converse. For six of these changes no reasons are assigned.

Table 32 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher movement from the graded school to the one-room school

Reasons assigned for movement from the graded school to the one-room school	Significance of reason	
	Rank	Percentage
Board moved me to another position	1	31.1
To live at home	2	21.7
To teach a one-teacher school	3	15.1
Failed to be reelected	4	11.2
To teach fewer pupils	5	7.2
An increase in salary	6	5.6
All other	-	8.1

With a per cent weight of 31.1, "Board moved me to another position" again becomes the first reason in importance for a movement by teacher type. A desire "To live at home" ranks second as a cause; "To teach a one-teacher school," third, and "Failed to be reelected," fourth. The combined weight of these four causes indicates their opera-

tion in 80 per cent of all position changes through these teacher types.

Graded-elementary school, inter-type movement -

A relatively high percentage, 14.9, of the 329 position changes graded-school, inter-type, in nature, is recorded with no assigned reasons. Almost half of this movement has its source with the intermediate-grades type and slightly more than one-fifth originates with the upper-grades type.

Again the prime cause for a kind of movement by teacher type may be said to be without the teacher's volition (Table 33). Assignment to a different position by the school board is here not so strikingly significant, however; this reason has a weight advantage only two per cent greater than "To teach preferred grades." First tabulations show the latter reason to be most significant for the intermediate-grades type. This may imply that intermediate-grades teachers are the least able of the graded-school types to overcome adjustment difficulties.

The causal factor third in importance for inter-type movement in the graded school is economic; both third and fourth ranking reasons are contributory. These with the causes of first and second importance account for seven out of every ten position changes of this kind.

Table 33 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher movement graded-school, inter-type in nature

Reasons assigned for movement graded-school, inter-type in nature	Significance of reason	
	Rank	Percentage
Board moved me to another position	1	25.2
To teach preferred grades	2	23.2
An increase in salary	3	12.8
A longer school term	4	6.7
To teach preferred subjects	5	6.2
To live at home	6	5.3
To teach under regular supervision	7	3.5
All other	-	17.1

Summary - In summarization of the causal aspect of rural teacher movement, according to type, the data of this study indicate:

1. The prime cause of movement of this nature varies only slightly with types involved in the position change;
2. Assignment to a different position by the school board is the one cause distinctly overshadowing all others having measurable significance. This cause ranks first in importance for each of three kinds of movement by teacher type: Intra-type movement; movement from the graded school to the one-room

school, and graded-school, inter-type movement;

3. For graded-school, inter-type movement, this cause, involuntary with the teacher, has no significant weight advantage over the second cause in importance, the teacher's desire "To teach preferred grades;"

4. A desire "To live at home" is the second, and only other, cause of importance for two kinds of movement by teacher type: Intra-type movement and movement from the graded school to the one-room school, and

5. Movement from the one-room school to the graded school results largely from these three causal factors, in order of importance: A desire "To teach in a graded school;" "To teach preferred grades," and to obtain "An increase in salary."

By Subject Fields

Movement through subject fields taught is movement peculiar to high-school teachers, as explained in an earlier section. A total of 147 such position changes are recorded, for 24 of which no reasons are specified by respondents. Causal factors are based, therefore, on 83.7 per cent of the total number of such position changes.

The data of Table 34 establish "To teach preferred subjects" as the reason of first importance; "Board moved me to another position," as the second, and "An increase in salary," the third. The weight difference between the first

Table 34 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher movement by subject or subjects taught

Reasons assigned for position changes in subject or subjects taught	Significance of reason	
	Rank	Percentage
To teach preferred subjects	1	25.3
Board moved me to another position	2	23.2
An increase in salary	3	17.2
To live at home	4	6.6
Salary increases guaranteed	5	3.4
To become a supervisor	6	3.2
All other	-	21.1*

*Includes the three reasons eighth in rank, each with a weight of 3.0. These reasons are: "A longer school term;" "To become a principal;" "Desired change."

two is negligible; between second and third, ordinarily significant.

There are, however, other reasons, the weights for which taken singly mean little, but combined may determine the actual order of significance of causes. These are: "To live at home," fourth reason in rank, 6.6, and popularly thought to contain a considerable economic element; "Salary increases guaranteed," fifth ranking reason, with a weight of 3.4, and "A longer school term," eighth in rank, 3.0 in weight.

The combined weight of the last two reasons added to the weight of "An increase in salary" clearly places the economic cause for this manner of movement second in importance. And the economic factor in "To live at home" has probable weight which, combined with the fifth and eighth weights in significance, is sufficient even to displace a desire "To teach preferred subjects" as the cause of first significance.

By Kinds-of-Position

In order to arrive at a basal number of changes by kinds-of-position deemed at least somewhat safe for the derivation of causal factors, a more sweeping kind of combination than that outlined on p. 75 is used. By lumping all instances of movement originating with the "Teacher" status with those originating with the "Teacher-supervisor-principal" status and ending in the "Supervisor-principal" status, only 101 position changes are combined.

First, and second reasons in importance, as recorded for this phase of movement by kinds-of-position, are respectively, "To become a principal," and its not uncommon counterpart, "To become a supervisor" (Table 35). These two reasons combined are a cause of more than half of all movement to positions implying greater responsibilities.

Table 35 - The relative significance of reasons
for rural teacher movement by kinds-of-
position

Reasons assigned for position change by kinds-of-position	Significance of reasons	
	Rank	Percentage
To become a principal	1	31.1
To become a supervisor	2	22.6
An increase in salary	3	19.8
Board moved me to another position	4	3.6
All other	-	22.9

Third in importance is the economic cause, as expressed in a desire for "An increase in salary" with a weight of 19.8.

The combined percentage significance of these first three reasons, 73.5, means that three of every four changes of this nature may be attributed to their influence.

There is, of course, a phase of movement by kinds-of-position converse in nature to that just discussed. This movement ordinarily is from positions of greater to positions of lesser responsibilities. Fortunately for the profession, there is relatively little movement of this character; only 25 such position changes are recorded, a number deemed entirely insufficient for the establishment of causal factors.

The Causal Factors of All Movement Within the Profession Summarized

For the 2961 position changes recorded as all movement within the profession at the end of the first six years covered by this research, a total of 4511 reasons are assigned by the mobile element among 10,355 teachers.² Summary data, presented in Table 36, clearly establish "Board moved me to another position" as the prime reason for movement within the profession; a desire "To live at home," the second reason in importance, and "An increase in salary," the third. As pointed out earlier in this chapter, there is a probable economic factor in the second reason, which combined with the reason third in importance may equal or even outweigh the first. This investigator believes that, despite the data, the economic reason should be adjudged equally productive, with school board action, of movement within the profession.

The margin of weight that the reason "To live at home" has over the fourth ranking reason, "To teach in a graded school," would seem safely to establish its rank, some abatement for the economic element allowed.

Fifth cause in importance comes from a desire "To teach preferred grades." Sixth and seventh ranking causes are, respectively, a failure to be reelected and the

²The derivation of this number is shown in several of the preceding tables. Data for "All schools," Table 6, p. 29, are an example.

attraction of the longer school term. The latter factor is primarily economic in nature, and serves to strengthen the position taken with respect to the first two ranking reasons.

Table 36 - The relative significance of reasons for all rural teacher movement within the profession

Reasons assigned for movement within the profession	Significance of reasons	
	Rank	Percentage
Board moved me to another position	1	18.8
To live at home	2	14.9
An increase in salary	3	13.8
To teach in a graded school	4	7.3
To teach preferred grades	5	7.1
Failed to be reelected	6	6.2
A longer school term	7	6.1
To teach fewer pupils	8	4.1
To teach preferred subjects	9	3.5
To become a principal	10	3.0
Salary increases guaranteed	11	2.5
Desired change	12	2.3
To teach under regular supervision	13	2.0
All other	-	8.4

Causes of Withdrawal from the Profession

Withdrawals from the profession among rural teachers within the period covered by this research number 1042. For 1016 withdrawals, 1040 reasons are specified. The extra 24 reasons result from designations of the occupations entered in some instances of withdrawal because of illness, or because of a failure to be reelected. Twenty-six withdrawals are without assigned reasons.

Besides the 26 withdrawn teachers who assigned no reasons, 212 others apparently felt the record complete with designations of illness, failure to be reelected, or retired as reasons for withdrawal. It may be assumed, of course, that some low percentage of those retiring and of those withdrawing on account of illness engage actively in no occupation subsequently. At any rate the data lack occupational information for 22.8 per cent of all withdrawals. It is probable, however, that the 804 designations of occupations entered are a sufficient number to establish the occupational tendencies of withdrawing members of the education profession.

The rural teacher (all types) withdraws from school work primarily to marry (Table 37). The data show that one person out of every four withdrawing enters the occupation of housewife. This is a natural concomitant of a profession constituted largely of women.

The data for all types of teacher show also that one out of every five withdrawals is made to attend college; one of every eight, because of illness. These reasons rank, respectively, second, and third in importance. It is probable that most withdrawals for the former reason later become reentrants. Reentrants, too, are identified as teachers

Table 37 - The relative significance of reasons for rural teacher withdrawal from the profession, by types

Reasons assigned for withdrawal from the profession	Type of teacher, 1923-24							
	All types		One-room school		Graded school		High school	
	Signifi- cance of reason		Signifi- cance of reason		Signifi- cance of reason		Signifi- cance of reason	
	Rank	Per- cent- age	Rank	Per- cent- age	Rank	Per- cent- age	Rank	Per- cent- age
To marry	1	24.3	1½	22.8	1	29.2	2	16.1
To attend college	2	19.7	1½	22.8	3	13.2	1	25.4
Because of illness	3	12.5	4	11.4	2	15.1	4	9.3
Pressure of home duties	4	11.3	3	12.3	4	12.4	9	3.4
Failed to be re-elected	5	8.2	5	6.7	5	11.1	6	5.9
To teach in another state	6	5.2	8	3.3	6	5.7	3	12.7
To enter clerical positions	7	4.7	6	5.4	7	4.9	-	0.9
To enter trade occupations	8	3.1	9	2.5	8½**	2.2	5	8.5
All other	-	11.0	-	12.8*	-	6.2	-	17.8***

*Includes the 7th ranking reason, "To enter farming" (3.8)

**Rank shared with "To retire."

***Includes two reasons, "To enter farming" and "To become assistant county superintendent," each ranking 7½ (4.2).

withdrawn for almost any other reason, including marriage, but in much less significant and varying degrees.

"Pressure of home duties," the cause of withdrawal fourth in significance, is a reason supplied by respondents. It is a blanket sort of cause, including such frequent expressions as, "To care for aged parent;" "Illness in the family;" "Needed at home," and the like.

Withdrawal cause fifth in significance, "Failed to be reelected," requires no comment additional to that already noted. In the case of the sixth, "To teach in another state," it may be argued with good reason that the cause is invalid because withdrawals from the profession have not taken place. In this research, however, such instances of movement are arbitrarily held to be withdrawals from the profession in Pennsylvania.

Seventh, and eighth ranking causes of withdrawal among rural teachers, "To enter clerical occupations," and "To enter trade occupations," have as their meanings the definitions used by the Census Bureau of the United States.

In noting the withdrawal data for the three common teacher types in Table 37, it should be remembered that these are the types as of 1923-24. It is incorrect, therefore, to assume the 566 withdrawals by the one-room-school type of teacher are all made from positions in one-room schools. This teacher type reacts to the need for professional improvement in a very striking way. The data show "To attend college" a cause of withdrawal ranking with "To marry" in signifi-

cance. And with this type "Pressure of home duties" is the withdrawal cause third in significance.

The graded-school type of teacher accounts for 370 withdrawals. Causes of withdrawal for the type show a very high rank-order agreement with those for all types. Second and third ranking causes become interchanged, it is noted.

The ranking of causes of withdrawal for high-school teachers is based upon 109 withdrawals only, a number possibly too low to obtain optimum representativeness in causes. Causes of withdrawal for this type to be noted especially are "To teach in another state," and "To enter trade occupations," ranking third and fifth, respectively.

"To become assistant county superintendent" is a reason for withdrawal by the high-school type ranking 7 $\frac{1}{2}$. It is paradoxical in nature in that a promotion within the profession results from a withdrawal from the profession. Reasons for terming such movement withdrawal are perhaps somewhat arbitrary yet sound in nature for this research. The individual so moving retains no one of the four teacher identifying elements used in this study.

Only 44 of the 1042 rural teacher withdrawals were from third-class school districts. This number is deemed much too low for a determination of ranking causes of withdrawal by school districts. And for the same reason a ranking of causes for withdrawal by kinds-of-position is omitted.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARIZATION

Some Basic Points of View

From a telic point of view some amount of teacher movement in each of its several aspects would probably be considered desirable even in an ideal state system of public schools. This is one of Cubberley's tenets as expressed in the last of seven fundamental principles of action he proposed for the selection and retention of teachers:

"The continual selection of teachers who have had little or no educational experience outside of the city or of the immediate community tends to result in an inbreeding process which is inimical to the best interests of the children in the schools. A certain percentage of new blood from time to time is desirable and should be drawn into the system from abroad."¹

Elsbree, in drawing conclusions in his study of teacher turnover in the cities and villages of New York, expresses a similar point of view:

"There is a rather general idea that a certain amount of turnover is healthy for the profession as a whole, that the injection of new blood into a school system stimulates the organization, and that turnover as a means to professional advancement should be encouraged."²

¹Cubberley, E. P. Public School Administration, p. 309. Houghton-Mifflin, 1929.

²Elsbree, W. S. Teacher Turnover in the State of New York, p. 68. Contribution to Education, No. 300, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

Certainly, as it relates to the common hierarchy of the professional personnel a considerable movement by kinds-of-position may be held indicative of a healthy, growing profession. In contradistinction, a like amount of mobility in each of the other aspects would probably be significant of disorder with attendant waste and inefficiency.

Regulations for the preparation and certification of Pennsylvania public school teachers were approved by the State Council of Education, December 19, 1921. These, together with subsequent revisions of curricula by teacher-training institutions, after a few years may be assumed to have made the objectives of prospective teachers in professional preparation reasonably definite with reference to teacher type, and subjects to be taught. On the other hand, an objective in the form of a particular school-district employer, probably is not ordinarily set because its attainment is very largely a matter of chance.

It is reasonable to assume, therefore, that healthy movement within the profession admits of a greater amount of movement by school districts than by any other aspect of movement. At what point teacher movement, by whatever aspect, shades from desirable to undesirable in amount is now largely a matter of conjecture. It is conceivable that ranges, expressed in annual rates, of desirable movement by any aspect may be somehow determined.

One possible method for their determination is a study of these movement aspects as they characterize the teaching personnel in rural school systems ranking high in the character of its educational product. This, in turn, raises the question: What are the criteria of a desirable educational product? Theoretically, the question has so many implications as to be indeterminable. Practically, criteria, based upon the collective opinion of recognized leaders in education and other social forces, may be adopted.

While the literature treating of tenure, turnover, and related subjects is replete with indices of amount, there is no suggestion of a range in desirable amount of teacher movement even in its composite aspect. Any judgment of teacher movement, either of its amount or influence, seems to be, in this research, a responsibility of the investigator. If this research were concerned with movement by school districts and from the profession only, as most tenure or turnover studies are, annual rates, except possibly for the one-room-school type of teacher, would occasion no particular concern. But these same rates, when recognized as representing but single aspects of all movement actually taking place, and when traceable to causes seemingly eradicable, should be expected to incite remedial action.

The More Significant Conclusions

1. School districts of the third class have greater retentive and attractive powers than school districts of the fourth class.

The data on inter-class-of-district movement, and on movement from and to the profession are all evidence in support of this conclusion. In view of the relatively slight opportunity for movement to districts of the third class, directly traceable to the overwhelming number advantage of the fourth class, the popularity of the third-class district assumes an importance much more significant.

Causal data show that the popularity of the third-class school district is largely traceable to the economic advantage it offers the teacher, with the school administration advantage a relatively low second factor in importance. The reason for the economic advantage is primarily a state statute.

Paragraph 6 of Section 1210, Pennsylvania School Law, makes it mandatory for school districts of the third class to establish salary schedules based on minimal annual salaries and increments expressed therein. Paragraph 7 of the same section requires school districts of the fourth class to pay certain minimal monthly salaries only. The significance of these provisions can best be understood by quoting them in entirety:

"6. Districts of the third class. - Elementary teachers, and elementary principals who devote less than one-half of their time to supervision and administration, minimum annual salary one thousand dollars (\$1,000), minimum annual increment one hundred dollars (\$100), minimum number of increments four (4); high school teachers, and high school principals who devote less than one-half of their time to supervision and administration, minimum annual salary one thousand two hundred dollars (\$1,200), minimum annual increments one hundred dollars (\$100), minimum number of increments four (4), provided that where teachers in junior high schools have the qualifications required by the local school board for teachers of the senior high school, they shall be placed upon the high school schedule, otherwise they shall be placed upon the elementary school schedule; supervisors, minimum salary one thousand two hundred dollars (\$1,200), minimum annual increment one hundred dollars (\$100), minimum number of increments four (4); elementary principals who devote one-half or more of their time to supervision and administration, minimum annual salary one thousand four hundred dollars (\$1,400), minimum annual increment one hundred dollars (\$100), minimum number of increments four (4); high school principals who devote one-half or more of their time to supervision and administration, minimum annual salary two thousand dollars (\$2,000), minimum annual increments one hundred twenty-five dollars (\$125), minimum number of increments four (4); superintendents, minimum annual salary three thousand five hundred dollars (\$3,500).

"7. Districts of the fourth class. - Elementary teachers, minimum monthly salary one hundred dollars (\$100); high school teachers, minimum monthly salary one hundred thirty dollars (\$130)." ³

Data are not readily available showing to what extent districts of the third class exceed the minima prescribed in the law. But it is known that there is a considerable differential between the average salaries paid teachers by the two classes of school districts. For example, for the

³Pennsylvania. The School Law, p. 84. Harrisburg, 1929.

school year 1927-28, the statistical report⁴ for the schools of Pennsylvania shows that the median annual salary for teachers in school districts of the third class was \$1479; in districts of the fourth class, \$959.

In view of this statutory economic advantage of the school district of the third class, its gains in teachers at the expense of the fourth class of district are only natural. Lack of opportunity for such movement, only, would seem to preclude a greater amount.

2. Teachers employed in school districts of the third class tend to movement by school districts at a rate less than half that for teachers employed in districts of the fourth class.

The data show that only one in every 21 teachers in districts of the third class change school-district employer annually. For teachers in fourth-class districts, the rate is one in 9. The former rate, despite the fact that it represents but one aspect of the whole movement, should not be considered alarming. In fact, it may not be far removed from, and may even fall within, a range of desirable movement by school districts.

While the data of this research do not directly establish the factors productive of this relative school-district stability shown by teachers in third-class school

⁴Pennsylvania. Statistical Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, p. 5. Harrisburg, 1927-1928.

districts, it may be inferred that they are primarily the same economic factors attracting teachers to the district. Besides these, there are probably others, such as better living conditions, and greater social, recreational, and professional opportunities which respondents might properly have submitted as attractive causes more frequently than they did.

It is conceivable, of course, that the same disparity in numbers of the two classes of districts, which precludes a greater movement of teachers from fourth- to third-class school districts, at the same time tends to keep teachers in third-class districts relatively stable. Certainly the relative disadvantages characterizing the district of the fourth class, as an employer, would tend to discourage even those teachers inclined to change to movement in that direction.

3. Teacher movement involving a change in teacher type appears to be the aspect of gravest concern.

Between 15 and 16 of every hundred rural teachers become teachers of a different type annually. Much of this high rate is contributed by teachers of the one-room school for whom the annual rate is one in four. Further, just two-fifths of all movement of this kind is intra-type, or school-to-school, in nature.

Causal data for inter-type movement imply that the responsibility for the major portion of such movement rests

not upon the mobile teacher but upon the employing school board. This is especially true of the large element which is intra-type in nature. Tradition continues to be a powerful factor influencing the action of school boards, especially those responsible primarily for the administration of one-room schools. There can be no doubt that many boards still regard the annual, or the biennial, shuffle and new deal of the teaching personnel as a sound administrative policy.

While more than half of all movement inter-type in nature may be charged to the one-room-school type of teacher (or to the school boards employing the type), the remaining portion of this aspect of movement, incurred almost entirely by the three graded-school types, cannot escape notice. Some share of it surely is desirable, but a probable greater share is undesirable. And, looming large in the latter, there would seem to be that considerable portion of inter-type movement resulting from school board action, although it may not be stated that all movement so initiated is undesirable.

Other undesirable inter-type movement, in amount impossible to determine, may possibly be charged to teacher-preparatory agencies. At any rate, a critical examination by these agencies of their methods of selection, guidance, and preparation of prospective teachers may not be out of order. It would be helpful, of course, for the teacher-training agencies to know the movement tendencies of their

individual and collective products.

4. Movement by high-school teachers among subjects taught also seems serious in import.

It cannot be definitely established whether the teacher's desire to teach preferred subjects or his desire to obtain an economic advantage is the primary cause of this manner of movement. It is indicated by the causal data, however, that these two causes, along with position changes directed by the school board, rank as the most significant three causes. And there is probably very little variation in their relative weights as causes.

Actually, about one in every four such position changes is involuntary with the teacher. Much of this movement, therefore, must result from alternation and combination of subjects in the curricula of rural high schools. In addition, there is the probable factor of adjusting the subject assignments of teachers according to exigencies and the all-around convenience of the high-school teaching staff as a unit. To the extent that these factors are operative, much of such movement will continue as a characteristic of the relatively weak high-school organization as it is found, primarily, in school districts of the fourth class.

Beginning high-school teachers may grasp the opportunity to teach any subject, providing certification requirements are satisfied, in order to get a start in the profession. Later a change to preferred subject fields is

only natural and to be expected. But, since so much of the movement results from a preference for certain subjects, this question is suggested: To what extent are teacher-training institutions responsible for the movement? The question is now unanswerable. It would be conceded, no doubt, that they are in some way and to some degree responsible.

Since the economic factor is so significant in causing movement through subject fields, it is probable that not infrequently preferred subjects are foregone for economic gain. The data of this research give no inkling of the extent to which this may be true. But, in view of salary tendencies, the profession as a whole may be expected to countenance movement so actuated.

5. Except for the high-school type of teacher, the upper-grades type in the graded school is the only type likely to succeed to any status other than "Teacher."

Here is a fact revealed by this research that appears to have neither rime nor reason as a basis. One of the concomitants of the position supervisor, or principal, is a certain social and professional prestige. The belief that the upper-grades type of teacher succeeds to these positions as frequently by a sort of prerogative as by qualification was stated earlier in this discussion. If the lower two graded-school types are to be denied access to these positions of broader responsibility, then some

other substitute must be offered. Otherwise, an ambition toward a very important kind of professional growth is stifled before birth.

6. Withdrawal from the profession is at a rate serious in import.

While the annual rate of withdrawal, one in every ten rural teachers, accounts for no more than a fourth of all movement, it seems much higher than education as a social enterprise should permit. It is an especially serious problem with the teacher of the one-room school.

One of every five teachers who withdraw do so to attend college. The initial years of this research covered a period when teachers of every type were vigorously completing requirements for certification. But with due allowance for withdrawal for this very good reason, the withdrawal problem in the large still remains serious.

One of every four teachers withdraws to be married, and is accordingly, as a rule, lost to the profession permanently. This is but a natural outcome of a profession composed so predominantly of women of marriageable age.

The expense incurred by the state in the business of preparing this temporary element of the profession presumably for a teaching career, great as it is, may not be the most serious loss. Other things being equal, the married woman who has experienced motherhood and the rearing of children, and against whom there is a pronounced tendency

to discriminate, is probably the superior teacher. At any rate, the Carnegie Foundation takes the position that the restriction of the profession to unmarried women is meaningless. In a report of the Foundation's survey of the Missouri public schools, these statements are particularly significant:

"To teach well is the privilege of maturity and experience; it is the prerogative of men and women of affairs, of fatherhood, of motherhood; it is the business of brains and a vigorous social participation that draws the pupil into the stream of interesting and instructive persons and events. What have immature girls to do with this except as they prepare to make it the main object of their lives irrespective of marriage?"⁵

Just now when the unemployment problem is the most serious in the history of the nation, the married woman is being banned from employment in the schools more completely than ever. It is conceivable that the opposite tendency on the part of those charged with school control may serve as the best insurance against recurrent unemployment crises.

7. Rural teacher movement, in its total aspect, is a most insistent problem.

Thirty-nine of every hundred rural teachers change positions annually. While the rate for the high school is the same as for all teachers, in itself alarming in nature, the rate for the one-room-school type is almost incredible.

⁵The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools, p. 11. Bulletin No. 14, New York, 1920.

Fifty-two of every hundred teachers of this type change positions annually.

This section presents in summary the more striking facts of rural teacher movement as established by this research. In the section to follow, what appear to this investigator as the most promising remedial measures are briefly outlined.

Recommended Remedial Measures

Rural school teacher mobility is part and parcel of a problem much broader in scope and in significance, the problem of rural education. Abatement of the large problem may be attempted through two lines of attack: On the problem in the large, or upon each of its constituent parts. The Commonwealth will have to assume the leading role in the correction of certain partial aspects of the large problem, as, for example, those primarily teacher-preparatory in nature, and those involving subsidies.

On the other hand, certain corrective measures in the nature of a frontal attack on the large problem will at the same time resolve the more troublesome of the constituent problems. The most promising of these are: The larger unit for rural school administration; a shifting of the burden of taxation from real property to income; substituting a dynamic public interest in education for the traditional public laissez faire. Since the success of any, or all other measures, is very largely conditioned by the last, it is here discussed first.

1. A dynamic public interest in education.

In the opinion of Counts⁶ the American school of today is conservative because the people are essentially

⁶Counts, G. S. The American Road to Culture, p. 134. John Day, New York, 1930.

conservative. Had he written specifically of the American rural people, he might properly have stated that they are ultra-conservative. They tend to resist change. Accordingly the traditional organization for educational purposes persists. A modification of the organization means a partial modification of the social structure. But since the social structure has been successful, in the light of material criteria used by the American people as standards, there is little interest in modification.

Certainly these judgments were sound up to the close of the last decade. Today, however, when the country is scarcely emerging from the throes of political and social unrest, the lines of conservatism are clearly somewhat relaxed. There probably has been, therefore, no moment in the recent educational history of our country so propitious for reorganizing basic elements in our education structure.

The key to success in reorganization, as, for example, in effecting a larger unit for administration, is clearly leadership. It is leadership of the sort proposed by the Carnegie Foundation:

"Leadership of this sort in the protection and promotion of a community's most precious asset is the foremost duty of state and city superintendents. It is their business to make an abundance of good teaching an arresting and winning cause in chambers of commerce, churches, rotary clubs, labor unions, and similar civic and social organizations of citizen parents who control taxation. Enthusiasm and personal sacrifice to secure good teaching for his children are latent in well-nigh every parent. He must, however, know definitely and vividly what good teaching is, and he must clearly

understand that its value is on the whole directly related to its cost."⁷

Dynamic leadership of the kind suggested in the quotation should be expected of every public school officer and of many laymen in strategic positions. In fact, upon the leadership of the latter and of the teachers and school officers in the local units, any program for the reorganization of education would appear to have its most promising basis. From this nucleus leadership should be extended to include progressively the public school officers of the counties and of the state.

2. The larger unit for rural school administration.

Just what form a larger unit for rural school administration should assume for Pennsylvania has not yet been satisfactorily determined. It seems clear, however, that it must be shaped with reference to two very fundamental criteria, as proposed by Butterworth.⁸ Stated in question form, these are: Are the physical resources in a unit of area sufficient for the maintenance of an adequate school? and - To what extent are the educational interests of the population within a unit of area integrated?

⁷The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools, p. 13. Bulletin No. 14, New York, 1920.

⁸Butterworth, J. E. Rural School Administration, Chapter V, p. 81. Macmillan, 1926.

It is expected that the unit will ultimately be found in varying forms in accord with varying physical and social conditions. It may be expected to vary even within a single county. Some of the relatively weak 12-grade school systems, as indicated by school populations totaling less than 300, may not be eliminated by it. But it should be expected ordinarily to encompass a pupil population of 750 or more. Other factors being constant, this number of pupils may be thought a minimum desirable enrollment in the 12 grades of such unit.

A number of attempts have been made to create a larger unit for Pennsylvania by legislative enactment. These measures, had they succeeded, would generally have satisfied the first of the two criteria. Units thus established, however, would have been faulty in their dissection of many natural social communities. The earlier attempts were especially ill-advised in this respect.

The very nature of the problem seems to imply that the second of the two criteria is by far the more important. To define the bounds of a unit so that there is a minimum desirable amount of integration is in itself a problem of first magnitude. A greater problem is to educate the public, committed traditionally to the principle of decentralization in school control, to the support of the larger unit adequately defined. Herein probably lies the reason for failure in the most recent attempt to create the larger unit. Any attempt that reckons without the public seems

foredoomed. The problem calls for leadership of the highest order.

The larger unit for school administration, as a remedial measure, is seen, therefore, to be inextricably associated with a dynamic interest in education.

3. A complete revision of the bases and methods of taxation.

Weaver⁹ has thoroughly outlined the weaknesses and injustices of rural taxation in Pennsylvania. The problem is too large and too complex to admit of even a brief review here. Suffice it to state, however, that for years the wastes incident to present methods of tax collection have been apparent to the public but it seems that the antiquated nature of the system is only now becoming apparent. Biennial attempts have been made to correct the former but they have been regularly stifled by powerful political forces. Organizations in the form of tax payers' leagues and the like have become very active in the last two years and may represent a hopeful omen.

Here is a problem calling for a scientific determination of a taxation system, in so far as science may be

⁹Weaver, F. P. Some Phases of Taxation in Pennsylvania. Bulletin 437, Pennsylvania Department of Agriculture, Harrisburg, and

_____, The Rural Tax Problem in Pennsylvania. Bulletin 263, The Pennsylvania State College, School of Agriculture and Experiment Station, State College.

brought to bear on the problem. Then naturally follows the task of gaining public approval. In this the problem of leadership would seem less acute; the public is in the mood to accept any substitute for the system in use.

4. A reduction, or elimination, of the salary differential now favoring teachers in school districts of the third class.

This measure, if realized in a most desirable way, will involve not only a revision of taxation methods and the establishment of the larger unit for school administration, but also extended state participation in financing education. In the report¹⁰ on appropriations and subsidies submitted to Governor Pinchot in 1925, the survey committee called attention to the fundamental need for a revision of the entire taxation system; that wise and proper state participation is impossible without such action. In the same report the committee had in mind the existent salary differential in recommending that the state require annual salary increments for teachers in fourth-class districts comparable with those for teachers in districts of the third class. And it further recommended that the state pay a proportion of these increments in low-valuation districts.

Had the committee been less conservative in its recommendations, it might well have proposed a salary differ-

¹⁰Pennsylvania. Educational Surveys, p.135. Harrisburg, 1925.

ential in favor of the teacher employed in the fourth-class district. This teacher even today is denied certain opportunities that are available to the teacher in the higher classes of districts. If all classes of districts are to be more nearly comparable in attraction for teachers, the advantages peculiar to the higher classes of districts must be offset.

These measures, in very condensed presentation, seem most promising for resolving the ills of rural teacher mobility, as disclosed. There remain, as a closing discussion of the report of this research, a few suggestions for further inquiry into the problem of rural teacher mobility.

A Few Suggestions for Further Research

A research planned and prosecuted after the manner of this is an undertaking much too ponderous for the average research facilities. It should be attempted only with the aid of tabulating machines.

On the other hand, a research of comparable scope seems practicable if it involves a more restricted locale and a correspondingly longer period of time. A continuing research project may be conducted with average research facilities. The annual, or continuing, project should be productive of data having maximum reliability for the type of project.

Researches of this character should avoid entailing more than a limited number of cooperating elements. Fifteen counties are included in this. While cooperation throughout was ready and genuine, certain retarding factors were impossible to avoid.

No reliance should be placed upon teacher records with rural school district officials; they are practically non-existent. Even for certain counties substitutions had to be made because of inadequate records in the county offices. On the other hand, certain county officers maintain a very complete file of teacher data, usually, however, only of those continuing in service.

As rapidly as possible all school districts of whatever size should develop a system of records that will

be useful not only to the districts in personnel relations but will also serve to facilitate the conduct of researches in various personnel problems. Much of the work incident to such records will necessarily have to be done during the summer months. This means, of course, the employment of the chief school officer in such districts for a full year, or 12-months, term.

As suggested hereinbefore, institutions preparing recruits for the teaching profession may find it feasible to develop follow-up facilities productive of teacher movement information of the most reliable and useful character. Information so acquired would also serve to show how well the teacher-preparatory function is being performed.

Finally, as suggested in a preceding section of this report, there is need for indices of desirable amounts of teacher movement. These appear possible for scientific determination.

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APPENDIX A

The content of Appendix A is the questionnaire, in these elements:

1. Letter of transmittal;
2. Directions for the completion of blank # 1;
3. Blank # 1, and
4. Blank # 2, with directions for completion.

On the pages which follow, these elements are represented to conform with the original as nearly as possible. The first two elements occupied both sides of a sheet $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 11". Blank # 1 of the questionnaire, and blank # 2 with directions, each required a sheet of paper $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 15" in the original.

Both forms of the questionnaire are reproduced in parts, however. The left-hand half of blank # 1 occupies one page herein; the right-hand half, the page following. Similarly, the upper and the lower halves of blank # 2 may be found on consecutive pages. Then, too, all blank elements of both forms, to be used by respondents in recording data but not necessary here for illustrative purposes, have been deleted to further facilitate the reproduction of the essentials.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE
(Letter of transmittal)

COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

_____, Pennsylvania

(Date)

Dear Teachers and Former Teachers:

The movement of teachers among the schools, school districts, and from the profession, whether voluntary or involuntary, presents a troublesome problem for the county superintendent. The continuing contract legislation of 1929 has made the problem less serious in nature but has by no means effaced it. We have our theories and beliefs as to the nature and causes of the movement but to suggest measures for the problem's solution we must ascertain certain facts about it. These facts teachers only can supply. And to obtain a balanced picture of the movement it is important that both present and former teachers supply data.

So please fill in the information called for in the inclosed forms as completely and as accurately as you possibly can. Do this at your earliest possible convenience and return the form on or before (date) in the inclosed addressed envelope to the Department of Rural Education, The Pennsylvania State College, where the data will be analyzed.

We have tried to anticipate any questions you may have by giving explicit directions for each part of the form. It is important that you read all directions carefully before attempting to complete the forms. Be sure the two forms agree in number of changes of position made. Accuracy, legibility, and completeness are all-important.

Please write your name and address in the space provided. Be sure that you need not hesitate to record any item of data, no matter how private in character; all information will be treated as strictly confidential.

Superintendents in other counties of the state are also asking for information. The study must be representative of the teaching profession state-wide to be of greatest value. When the study is completed, upon request you will have sent you a copy of the findings.

Thanking you for your fine professional interest in the past and for your kind cooperation in this project, I am

Sincerely yours,

(Signed)

County Superintendent

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions for the Completion of Blank # 1

1. Examine the main and sub-headings of the form and note how a sample year is completed.
2. High-school teachers (including junior high) and teachers of special subjects such as art, music, etc., should be sure to record data in all divisions from I through VI. Elementary-school teachers should omit division V.
3. Only the space for identification and columns 1, 2, and 23-25 (if used) require writing. Use numbers in column 10, and the check (✓) in all other appropriate columns. Use ditto marks (") wherever appropriate.
4. Data for each year from 1923 through 1930 are very essential even if you taught but one or two of these years. Write "Did not teach" in the space for any years appropriate.
5. Definition of "Teaching Position" - One in which more than one-half of each daily session is given to pupil instruction.
6. To define "Supervisory" and "Administrative" substitute for the words "pupil instruction" in the above definition the words supervision and administration, respectively.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE
(The left-hand half of blank # 1)

Blank # 1 - PLEASE READ THE DIRECTIONS ATTACHED AT YOUR LEFT

Name _____ Present address _____
(R.D. or St.)

SCHOOL YEAR	I NAMES OF SCHOOL AND OF EMPLOYING SCHOOL DISTRICT	II IN WHAT COUNTY IS THE EMPLOYING SCHOOL DISTRICT	III KIND OF SCHOOL TAUGHT						
			One-teacher	Graded elementary	Junior high	Jr.-Sr. high	High		
							4-year	3-year	2-year
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1920-21	Sch.-Red Hill Dist.-Jackson Twp.	Erie	✓						
In the space above we have indicated how the teacher of									
1923-24	Sch.- Dist.-								
(Here horizontal spaces for 1924-25 to 1928-29 have									
1929-30	Sch.- Dist.-								

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

(The right-hand half of blank # 1)

BEFORE MAKING YOUR NOTATIONS WITH PEN AND INK.

P.O. _____ State _____ Maiden name _____
(If married since 1924)

IV		V - SUBJECTS TAUGHT													VI KIND OF POSITION								
GRADE OR GRADES TAUGHT		English	Social studies	Mathematics	Science	Latin	Modern for'gn Lang.	Health & phys. ed.	Music	Art	Home economics	Agriculture	Guidance	Write & check any Others below			Teaching	Supervisory	Administrative	Combination of			
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	26 & 27	26 & 28	27 & 28	26, 27, & 28	
1-8																✓							
a one-room school should complete the form.																							
been omitted to facilitate reproduction.																							

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

(Upper half of blank # 2)

Blank # 2 - PLEASE READ CAREFULLY THE FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS
BEFORE MAKING YOUR NOTATIONS WITH PEN AND INK!

1. Read the 22 reasons listed below to get the meaning each conveys.
2. Consider a change in position as any one, or any combination, of the following:
 - a. Any change of schools within the same employing district;
 - b. A change from one employing district to another;
 - c. Any change in grade or grades taught;
 - d. Any change in the subject-field taught; as, e.g., from science to English;
 - e. Any change in kind of position (Division VI of Blank # 1), or
 - f. Leaving the profession.
3. Recall the first change in position you made since 1923-24 and all the reasons causing it. Then, below, in the column to the right with the appropriate year heading, place opposite your most important reason the number "1". And opposite all other reasons influencing you in a lesser degree, place a check (✓). Note how a sample year has been completed at the extreme right.
4. Repeat step 3 for each of your later changes in position.
5. In lines 23-25, and on the lower margin, if needed, write any reasons not listed below that caused you to change positions. Phrase such reasons to mean one thing only. If you quit teaching to enter a different occupation, be sure to fill in the blank in reason # 22.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE
(Lower half of blank # 2)

Reasons for a change in position	Year of change			Sample
	1924		1929	
1.To live at home				
2.A longer school term		((vertical spaces for years 1925 to 1928 are omitted))		✓
3.An increase in salary				
4.To become a principal				
5.To teach fewer pupils				✓
6.Failed to be reelected				
7.To become a supervisor				
8.Quit teaching to marry				
9.To become department head				
10.To teach preferred grade(s)				
11.To teach in a graded school				✓
12.Tardy reelection of teachers				
13.To teach a one-teacher school				
14.To teach preferred subject(s)				
15.Quit teaching to go to college				
16.Board closed school last taught				
17.Quit teaching because of illness				
18.Summer study made change possible				
19.To teach under regular supervision				
20.Annual salary increases guaranteed				
21.Board moved me to another position				
22.Entered occupation of _____				
23.				
24.				
25.				

APPENDIX B

Tables 38 through 42

Table 38 - A sex and school-level classification of the rural teachers in the selected counties, 1923-24

County	Number of teachers employed in the						Total number teachers
	Elementary school			High school			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Armstrong	61	328	389	22	30	52	441
Bradford	28	269	297	36	39	75	372
Centre	64	215	279	31	23	54	333
Chester	20	408	428	43	47	90	518
Crawford	70	223	293	35	32	67	360
Forest	8	48	56	7	4	11	67
Franklin	68	198	266	15	13	28	294
Lawrence	28	184	212	19	14	33	245
Lebanon	67	143	210	28	25	53	263
Lehigh	125	202	327	41	15	56	383
Montour	7	63	70	4	7	11	81
Potter	6	139	145	16	20	36	181
Somerset	145	369	514	25	29	54	568
Washington	87	691	778	70	55	125	903
Wayne	29	154	183	18	27	45	228
Total	813	3634	4447	410	380	790	5237

Table 39 - A certification classification of 5237
rural teachers in the selected counties,
1923-24

County	Number of teachers with these forms of certification				
	College	Normal school	Standard	Partial	Emergency*
Armstrong	35	60	116	194	36
Bradford	32	170	83	81	6
Centre	39	48	66	134	46
Chester	52	240	107	105	14
Crawford	27	114	76	131	12
Forest	2	14	7	36	8
Franklin	17	111	93	73	0
Lawrence	26	42	36	116	25
Lebanon	34	101	71	47	10
Lehigh	33	246	58	40	6
Montour	7	27	24	19	4
Potter	18	68	34	56	5
Somerset	39	62	180	252	35
Washington	96	237	157	377	36
Wayne	16	67	51	82	12
Total	473	1607	1159	1743	255

*Includes 53 individuals teaching by "special" certification.

Table 40 - Classification of 5241* rural teachers in the selected counties on the basis of teaching experience, 1923-24

County	Number of teachers having an experience, in years				
	Less than 5	5-9	10-14	15-19	20 or more
Armstrong	281	91	27	15	27
Bradford	187	72	47	24	42
Centre	206	54	25	9	39
Chester	259	109	45	45	60
Crawford	180	63	51	26	40
Forest	42	13	4	2	6
Franklin	146	56	25	19	48
Lawrence	137	65	19	15	9
Lebanon	108	63	21	22	49
Lehigh	122	93	53	34	81
Montour	29	18	9	5	20
Potter	92	39	19	14	17
Somerset	285	151	65	32	36
Washington	581	197	62	24	41
Wayne	126	43	21	11	28
Total	2781	1127	493	297	543

*Includes 4 kindergarten teachers.

Table 41 - Classification of 5241* rural teachers in the selected counties on the basis of annual salary, 1923-24

County	Number of teachers with a salary of						
	Less than \$700	\$700 -899	\$900 -1099	\$1100 -1299	\$1300 -1499	\$1500 -1999	\$2000 or more
Armstrong	106	196	75	23	19	10	7
Bradford	71	139	87	23	24	21	7
Centre	153	81	44	22	11	16	6
Chester	19	165	185	72	41	22	14
Crawford	121	133	44	30	11	7	14
Forest	24	27	6	2	6	2	-
Franklin	71	191	4	21	5	2	-
Lawrence	39	146	29	14	5	10	2
Lebanon	34	78	64	45	21	15	6
Lehigh	-	121	120	61	52	19	10
Montour	21	24	3	22	8	1	2
Potter	51	36	57	21	5	6	5
Somerset	104	242	108	66	23	18	8
Washington	97	323	191	151	65	51	25
Wayne	79	55	37	29	16	6	7
Total	990	1959	1054	607	312	206	113

*Includes 4 kindergarten teachers.

Table 42 - Four hundred forty teachers who remained
in one position seven years identified by
position elements

Number of teachers	Element identifying the position
	Class of school district
403	4
37	3

	Teacher type
59	One-room school
154	Primary grades
81	Intermediate grades
92	Upper grades
54	High school, including supervising officials

	Kind-of-position
408	Teacher
20	Teacher-supervisor-principal
12	Supervisor-principal

	Subjects taught (42 teachers)
5	Mathematics
5	Mathematics; science
5	English; foreign language
4	Social studies
4	Vocational subjects
3	Science
3	English; social studies
2	English
2	Foreign language
2	English; social studies; foreign language
2	Social studies; foreign language
2	Social studies; mathematics; foreign language
1	English; mathematics
1	Mathematics; foreign language
1	Social studies; mathematics; science

**End of
Title**